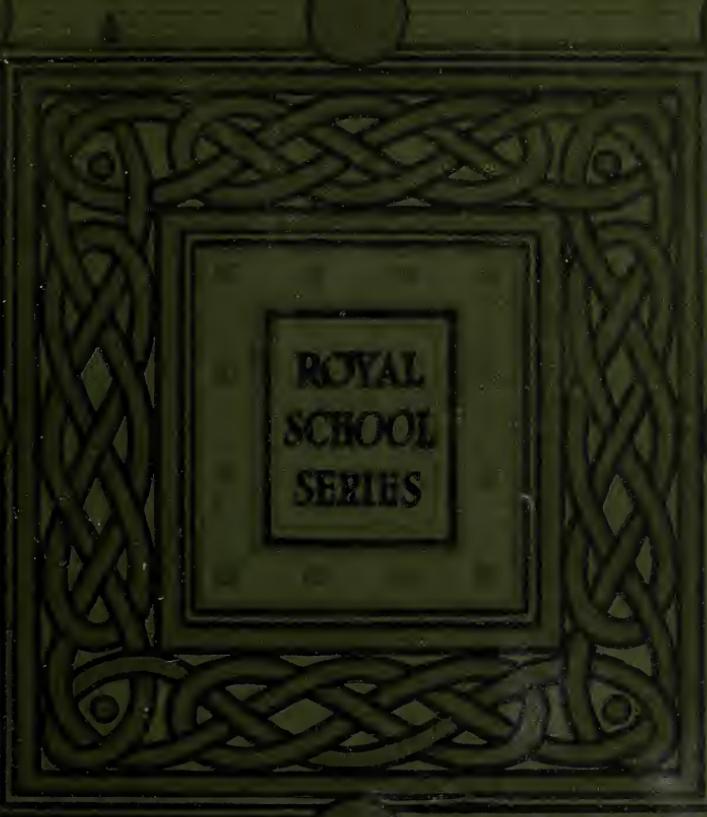


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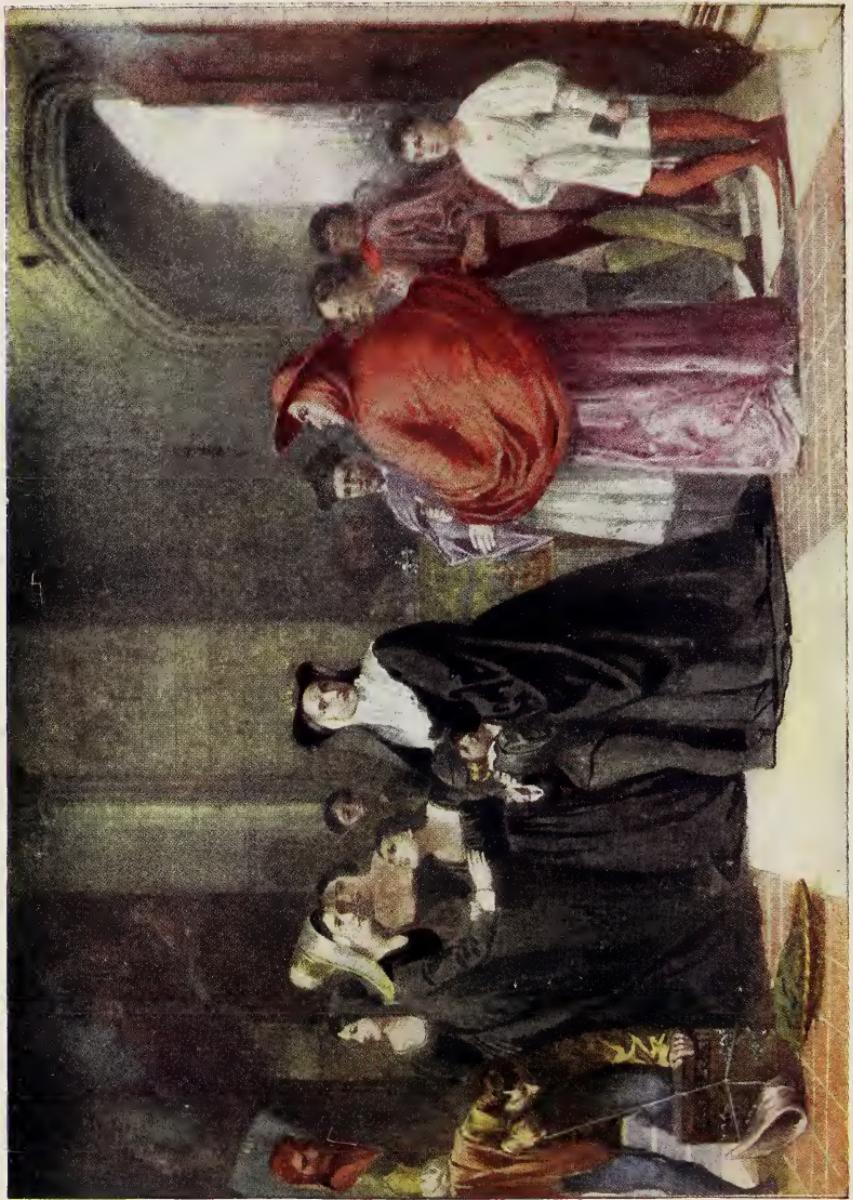
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**Cardinal Bouchier urges the widow of Edward IV, to let her younger son out of sanctuary.**

(From the picture by J. Z. Bell in the National Gallery.)

For the meaning of "sanctuary" see Book III, paragraph 9, page 62. The lady in the centre of this picture is Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Edward the Fourth. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, has got her elder son (the heir to the throne) into his power. He now wishes to obtain possession of the younger boy, who would become king if his brother were to die. Elizabeth has taken sanctuary in Westminster Abbey, and bids farewell to the child she is destined

THE ROYAL SCHOOL SERIES

# Highroads of History

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## Book IV (a).

(From Earliest Times to 1603)

THOMAS NELSON AND SONS

*London, Edinburgh, Dublin, and New York*

1913

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## BOOK IVa.

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### I. HOW THE ANCIENT BRITONS LIVED.

1. The people whom we speak of as the ancient Britons were Celts who invaded our islands some seven or eight centuries before the birth of Christ. They brought with them weapons of bronze—that is, a mixture of copper and tin. With their bronze swords they were able to subdue the old inhabitants, whose only weapons were of stone. The newcomers were a much superior race to those whom they overcame, both in mind and body. They were divided into many tribes, each with its own prince or chief. At the time when the British Isles first became known to the civilized nations of Europe, the Celts consisted of two nations—the Cymry in the southern part of Britain, and the Gaels in the Highlands of Scotland and in Ireland.

2. Let us try to picture a day in the life of the ancient Britons. We shall have to carry our thoughts back more than two thousand years. We must think of a land without many people in it, without stone houses or towns such as we now know, without roads, railways, bridges, mines, factories, or great stretches of tilled land.

3. Let us suppose that we are on board the ship of a hardy trader from the south of Europe, and that we are drawing near to the coast of Britain. We see before us the white cliffs gleaming in the sunlight, and soon our ship runs ashore on a strip of sand. Looking inland, we see a vast green forest, the tall tree-tops waving in the sea breeze.

4. The captain of our ship is an old trader ; the Britons know him and trust him, so he makes his way fearlessly to the nearest “town,” and we go with him. We plunge into the dark shades of the forest, and follow a narrow track that winds hither and thither through the dense undergrowth.

5. We are armed, for in the thickets and in the caves of the rocky hillocks lurk the gray wolf, the fierce boar, the black bear, and the wild cat. Now and then a startled deer gazes at us for a moment, and bounds away into safety. We pass by a stream in which herons are fishing and beavers are building. Overhead we see hawks sailing by, and from a neighbouring marsh we hear the boom of a bittern.

6. On we go, and at length we reach a great cleared space. The trees have been felled, and some of the land is under tillage. Horses, sheep, and oxen are quietly grazing, and here and there we see patches of yellow grain. Half a mile away is the “town.” All round it is a trench or moat, with an earthen wall on which is a stockade of oak logs. As we draw near to the entrance we see the pointed roofs of many huts, and observe thin lines of blue smoke curling up into the air.

7. We enter the town by a zigzag road, and pass by the beehive-shaped dwellings, which resemble the Zulu kraals of our own day. The walls are made of thin, straight boughs tied together, daubed over with mud and lined with clay; the roofs are thatched with rushes, straw, or bracken. The floors are of earth, or perhaps lined with thin slates. In the middle of each hut is a wood fire, and the smoke escapes by a hole in the roof. Roughly-hewn blocks of wood serve as table and chairs, and round the walls are beds of soft moss, with deer-skins or fleeces as coverings.

8. Before the door of one of the huts a British woman sits grinding corn with a *quern* or hand-mill. She has blue eyes and fair hair, and wears a tunic of dark-blue cloth. Sturdy little boys, scantily dressed in strips of bear-skin, play about the hut, and a girl is coming towards us with a roughly-made water-pot on her head. Peeping into the hut, we see wooden platters and bowls on the block of wood that serves for a table. We see also an old woman busy about her household duties. Notice, she is boiling water. She makes stones red-hot in the fire, and then drops them into an earthen pot filled with water.

9. Now we reach a long, low dwelling with rough oaken walls. Big mastiffs and wolf-hounds, used for hunting, lie before the door. We enter, and notice that the walls are covered with skins. Round shields of hide with shining metal knobs, spears with bronze heads, and bows with quivers of reed arrows tipped with flint are hung up on the walls. This is the home of the chieftain of the tribe.

10. He comes forward to welcome us. He is a tall, well-

made man, with blue eyes, fair hair, and a long moustache. Over his tunic he wears a mantle of cloth, and round his neck is a twisted *torque* or rope of gold. Where his skin is bare, we notice that it is painted with patterns of blue. He greets us in a friendly manner, and an Iberian slave hands us a drinking-cup filled with mead.

11. His wife comes forward too. Over her tunic is a scarf of red-striped plaid fastened by a pin of bronze. A string of dusky pearls adorns her neck, and spiral rings of silver shine on her fingers. The ivory bracelet and the amber beads which she proudly wears have been brought from afar by the traders who visit the "town" from time to time.

12. There is no idle person in the place. The chieftain's wife has work to do as well as her poorer sisters. She has to spin, to knit, to weave, to dye, to sew, to cook, to grind corn, and to milk the cows. Most of the men are away tending the flocks and herds or harvesting the grain. When the grain is reaped, the ears will be stored in underground chambers, and every day a supply will be brought forth to be pulled, roasted, and beaten out with a stick.

13. Here we see a man cleverly weaving baskets of wicker-work; and yonder is a fisherman carrying on his back a coracle, or wicker-work boat covered with skin. You may see the fishermen of certain Welsh rivers using similar boats to-day. This man has been fishing in the neighbouring stream. Over his arm he carries a net, and in his hand is a paddle.

14. Here is the metal-worker's hut. He melts copper and tin over his fire, mixes them together, and then pours

the bronze into moulds. Thus he makes the heads of axes and spears. Another worker hard by is busy chipping flints which have been brought from a quarry in the chalk hills. He fashions them skilfully into arrow and hammer heads. Yonder is a man kneading out yellow clay with which to make pottery.

15. Such was the Briton of Kent more than two thousand years ago. We must not, however, suppose that all the Britons were of this type. Further inland they were simple herdsmen, living on the flesh and milk of their cattle. Still further inland they were little better than savages. They lived by shooting deer or snaring birds, and wrapped their blue-stained limbs in the skins of the wild animals which they hunted.

---

## 2. ROMAN REMAINS.

1. There is scarcely a part of England where evidences of the Roman occupation of Britain cannot be seen. Roman walls still stand in many places, and on some of them we may see cut deeply into the stone the Latin inscriptions which tell us when and by whom they were built. Roman roads still remain, and are used to this day. Roman bridges still cross some of our rivers.

2. Old cities like York and Chester abound in the ruins of Roman buildings. Many of our museums contain Roman altars, Roman coins, Roman statues, and Roman pottery. The city of Bath contains a Roman bath which is still in use. At Silchester a complete Roman city has been unearthed. In various parts of the country, as at Ched-

worth in Gloucestershire, Roman villas have been laid bare, and we may see for ourselves the beautiful mosaic pavements and broken columns of their houses, their weapons, trinkets, pottery, coins, and inscriptions.

3. These things show us that the Romans lived for a long time in our land. We know that they began the work of conquest in real earnest about the year 43 A.D. The Britons fought long and stubbornly, but they could not stand against the well-armed and well-drilled legions of Rome. They sold their lives dearly, but they sold them in vain, and Britain became Roman, just as India is British to-day.

4. The greatest of all the Roman governors of Britain was Julius Agricola, about whom you read in Book III. He came to this island in the year 78 A.D. In his time Britain really became an outlying part of Rome. Agricola taught the Britons to give up their rude way of living, and to imitate the Romans in all things. Cities, temples, and fine houses, all on the Roman model, were built. British chiefs wore the Roman dress, spoke Latin, and amused themselves as the Romans did beside the Tiber.

5. Where the Romans planted themselves firmly, peace reigned. Heavy taxes were exacted from the people, and many of them were made slaves. They were taught the art of building ; they tilled the soil, delved in the mines, and fished the seas. Cattle, hides, wheat, barley, iron, tin, oysters, hunting-dogs, and many other things, were exported to Rome from Britain. Her trade increased, and she grew rich and prosperous.

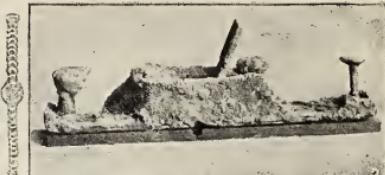
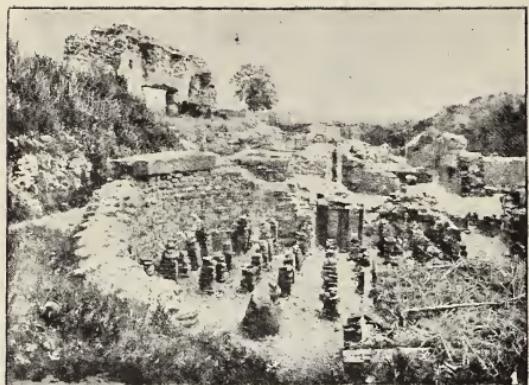
6. The Britons under Roman rule lost their fiery courage

and love of freedom, and cared only for fine houses, plenty to eat and drink, and amusements of all sorts. On the hilly frontiers, however, the natives were just as fierce and bold as ever. They still lived under their own chiefs, and made raids upon the Romans whenever a chance offered itself. The Britons of Wales and the Britons of Scotland were never really conquered by the legions of Rome. As far as we know, no Roman ever set foot in Ireland at all.

7. Look at a map of England. Find the Solway Firth on the west coast, and the mouth of the Tyne on the east coast. You will notice that this is the narrowest part of South Britain. Now, right across the hills and valleys from the North Sea to the Solway Firth we may trace a broken line of fire-formed cliffs. If we follow this line, we shall see the remains of what was once a huge wall of stone.

8. For more than seventeen hundred years the winds have hurled themselves against this wall, the rain has beaten upon it, the sun has warmed it and the winter has chilled it, yet parts of it stand to-day. Farmers have taken its stones to build their houses and barns, but even now enough of it remains to give us a good idea of what it was like when it was first built.

9. Look at the picture on page 19. It represents an everyday scene when the wall was slowly rising, about the year 120 A.D. The chief figure is that of a Roman officer with a measuring-stick in his hand. Behind him you see a Roman standard. The officer is angry with a lazy labourer who, instead of doing his work, is wasting his time in gambling. The labourer's wife, carrying her baby, has



ROMAN REMAINS IN  
BRITAIN.

1. Urriconium, Wroxeter. 2. Carpenter's plane found at Silchester. 3. Gateway to Roman camp, Borcovicus, Northumberland. 4. Newport Gate, Lincoln. 5. Pavement of house at Silchester. 6. Heating apparatus in house at Silchester. 7. Roman pottery found at Silchester.

just climbed the ladder on to the wall. From the look on her face you see that she expects her husband to be punished for his idleness.

10. Behind the Roman officer you see the soldiers building the wall. You notice that they have to work with their bows and shields beside them. Often they must drop their mallets and trowels and snatch up their weapons to ward off the attacks of the wild tribes living near the wall. Down below you see a party of Britons shooting arrows at the builders. They have wounded one of the workmen, and his comrades are now carrying him away. A soldier on the wall has caught an arrow in his shield.

11. Despite all attacks, however, the wall rises, and at last it is finished. What a vast work it is! For seventy-three miles it crosses the country up hill and down dale. It is eighteen feet high and eight feet wide. In front of it is a deep ditch, and behind it is a rampart of three earthen walls and a ditch. Between the rampart and the stone wall is a broad road, along which the soldiers may move rapidly to the defence of any part that may be threatened.

12. Every four miles along the wall there is a fortified camp, with streets crossing at right angles and gates at the ends of them. Every mile there is a small castle, and between the castles are stone sentry-boxes. Ten thousand men guard the wall. Many of them are Germans, Gauls, Spaniards, and Moors.

13. The building of this wall shows you that the Romans had a hard task in holding the land which they had con-

quered. Two hundred and fifty years after they first came to Britain they still had to keep an army of soldiers along this wall. The spirit of the wild tribes living in the rugged country to the north was not broken. In later years, when the Romans left the country, they swept down with fire and sword upon the defenceless Britons.

---

### 3. A DAY IN ROMAN BRITAIN.

1. Now let us try to picture a day in Roman Britain. We are suddenly planted down in the island, and, looking about us, we see that a great change has taken place in the appearance of the country since the coming of the Romans.

2. In many places the dense woods that formerly covered the land have been cut down. Broad fields have been carved out of the forests, and now we see them waving with barley, rye, and wheat. Gangs of British slaves are at work in the harvest fields. Britain has become one of the granaries of the Roman empire. Cattle and sheep by the hundred feed on the hillsides; and in Rome they speak of this land as *Britannia Felix*—“Britain the Happy.”

3. With the cutting down of many forests the weather has improved. No longer is the island wrapped in steaming mists and the sky always clouded. Many of the rivers which formerly lost themselves in reedy marshes have been embanked, and now flow on as broad, fair streams. The morasses are crossed by causeways, and the Britons loudly complain that their bodies and hands are

worn out in draining the fens and clearing the land for their Roman masters.

4. Look at the road beneath your feet. Broad and straight it runs over hill and valley, across stream and moor and bog. So well made are the roads that some of them are still in use to-day. The Roman engineers have dug down to the rocky crust, and upon this have built layer after layer of squared or broken stones. The upper surface of the road is closely paved, especially in the middle, with large blocks of stone. All this work has been done by the British under the guidance of their Roman taskmasters.

5. While we are examining the road, we hear the tramp, tramp of armed men, and a Roman legion swings by. The soldiers seem to be gathered from all the lands where Rome rules. The olive-skinned Italian marches side by side with the yellow-haired German and the dusky Moor. They are armed with large shields, heavy javelins, and short, thick swords. Their officers, in brazen armour and scarlet cloaks, bestride fine horses. In the midst of the soldiers is the glittering eagle, which they would rather die than have taken from them.

6. Let us follow the legion towards the city of Verulam, which we now call St. Albans. On we go along the broad, white road, now crossing a stream by a bridge, now wading knee deep through the ford of a broad river. Here and there amidst the trees we see the white buildings of a villa, where some British chief or Roman officer lives. Notice his beautiful garden, and his orchard of apples, plums, pears, and cherries. In a sunny spot you will find the

grape vine growing. Anon we pass a cemetery, with its many earthen mounds. Beneath those mounds are hollow graves, each with its urn of dark clay filled with the ashes of the dead.

7. On and on we march, swinging to the right or the left as some mounted messenger bearing dispatches for his general spurs by. At length the roofs of Verulam are seen. Round about the city is a great rampart of stone, and here and there we can see a sentinel leaning on his javelin and shading his eyes as he peers across the plain. We enter by one of the four gates, and find that the two main streets of the town cut each other at right angles. As we pass along we see many fine buildings, such as the Britons of old never dreamed of.

8. Here we see the carved pillars of a temple to the god of the sea ; there is a stately shrine to the goddess of wisdom ; yonder are the public baths, with their marble halls. All Romans love the bath. They have exchanged the balmy climate of the south for the chilly weather of this northern isle, but in the heated chambers of their baths they rejoice again in the warmth of their native land. Even their houses are cunningly heated with hot air.

9. Yonder is the court-house. In front of it the senators in flowing robes, and carrying rolls of parchment, pace to and fro. Here comes the governor with his guard of soldiers. Preceding him are his attendants or lictors, each carrying on his shoulder an axe bound up in a bundle of rods. See how the people in the streets make way for him ! Now a gang of slaves is driven by, and here comes a shock-headed British chieftain who has been captured in border



### Building the Great Wall.

*(From the design for a fresco by William Bell Scott, H.R.S.A.)*

This picture illustrates a scene during the building of the Great Wall which formed the northern boundary of Roman Britain in the days of the Emperor Hadrian (see p. 22). It extended from Wallsend on the Tyne right across the Northumbrian moors, thence to Bowness on the Solway Firth, a distance of nearly seventy miles. The wall was at least sixteen feet high and eight feet thick. Every four miles from one another there were forts, and between them watch-houses within call of each other. The wall was built A.D. 122. About ninety years later—namely, in A.D. 210—the wall was repaired and new fortifications were added by Severus.

warfare. He is on his way to Rome, where he will be tried before the emperor himself.

10. Yonder is the circus, where the townsfolk throng to see plays performed, or, what they love better, to see gladiators fight to the death. Here on the seats, tier above tier, are Britons who ape their masters in dress and speech. They no longer delight in battle and the chase. With their golden locks cut short and their beards trimmed in the Roman fashion, they spend their days in idle amusement, in feasting, and in gambling. They scorn the old British speech, and talk the slang Latin of Rome.

11. Out of the way ! Here comes a drove of rough-coated cattle urged forward by the shouts of their fierce, shaggy herdsmen. We step into a dyer's shop until the cattle have passed. The dyer is busy. His cauldron is set on a brick hearth over a charcoal fire, and in it he is dipping a piece of fine linen, which becomes dyed with the famous Tyrian purple worn by the Romans at their feasts. Now we pass again into the streets, and pause to see the children playing knucklebones on the doorsteps.

12. Here is the lordly town house of a Roman officer. Within, the Roman ladies sew and spin, while their husbands are out drilling, or sitting on the judgment seat. On their dressing-tables are mirrors of polished steel and combs of boxwood. They gird up their robes with brooches of gold and silver, and wear bracelets with costly jewels upon their arms. Pins of bone hold together their long tresses, and on their feet are dainty shoes of silk. Supper is at three. Then the gentlemen will join them. They will recline on couches and eat the dainties of the island, which they

will wash down with draughts of wine from Italian vineyards.

13. Such is the life of the town for the Roman officers and the wealthy Britons. The British peasants, however, are slaves. They till the land for their Roman masters ; they build for them roads, palaces, walls and towers of defence. In the marshes of the Medway and on the banks of the Nen they fashion earthenware or glass vessels of yellow, ruby, and blue. They work in the mines of iron, tin, copper, and lead, and smelt the ore in charcoal furnaces. They learn how to paint pictures, carve statues, work bronze, and make pavements of wonderful colour and form.

14. Some of them serve in the army in the distant parts of the empire, or on the wild frontiers of their own land. Most of them, however, are peaceful workers. They have not learned the arts of warfare, but the day will soon dawn when they will have to take up the unfamiliar bow and arrow, sword and shield, to beat back the fierce foe.

15. Rome is even now growing weaker. Fierce tribes from the north are pushing on towards the gates of the great city itself. Soldiers are drafted from all the Roman world to defend the heart of the empire, but in vain ; and at last the Roman emperor sends letters to the cities of Britain, telling them that they must provide for their own safety. The last of the legions leaves British shores in the year 409, amidst the sighs and tears of the inhabitants. All hope goes with them, for the British are as sheep without a shepherd. Thus Britain is left to her fate, and for two hundred years darkness closes around her.

#### 4. HERE ENGLISH HISTORY BEGINS.

1. To-day we will visit one of the most famous places in all the world. Come with me to the north-eastern corner of the county of Kent. You are now in the Isle of Thanet. No doubt you think it a poor sort of island, for it is only cut off from the mainland by a little river and a brook that you can easily jump across.

2. When, however, the Romans ruled in Britain, Thanet was a real island. A broad arm of the sea ran between it and the mainland, and the ships of the time could easily sail through the channel. On the mainland, at the northern end of the channel, the Romans built the fortress of Reculvers ; at the south end they built the strong castle of Richborough, the ruins of which are still to be seen. The north wall is still about twenty-three feet high. Richborough was the usual landing-place of travellers from Gaul.

3. On the island of Thanet, not far from the walls of Richborough, is Ebbsfleet, the spot which I have brought you to see. Perhaps you will say, "There is nothing to see after all." Certainly there is not much. There are merely a few gray cottages dotted over a stretch of higher land, cut off from the sea by a meadow and a sea-wall. Here, however, we stand on sacred ground. Here English history begins. This spot was the first in all Britain to feel the tread of English feet. Why did the English come here ?

4. To answer this question we must go back to the time when the Roman soldiers withdrew and left Britain to its fate. Sad indeed was the condition of the land. Fierce

foes, formerly held back by the Romans, now attacked the country on every side. The Picts and Scots swarmed over the great Roman wall, and carried fire and sword through the land even to the gates of London. English pirates swooped across the North Sea, sailed up the estuaries, and landed their crews to burn, kill, and rob without mercy.



RICHBOROUGH CASTLE.

*(From the picture by Clough Bromley.)*

5. The Britons, though for the most part unused to arms, fought bravely, but they could not withstand the robber bands. In their despair they sent a letter to Rome. It was called "The groans of the Britons," and in it they said: "The savages drive us into the sea, and the sea casts us back upon the savages. Our only choice is whether we shall die by the sword or drown, for we have none to

save us." Rome could do nothing to help them; and though brave princes rose up to lead them against the foe, the Britons were disunited, and made but little headway against their enemies. King Arthur, about whom you read in Book II., was perhaps the most famous of these princes.

6. You already know the story of Hengist and Horsa. You know that Vortigern, the King of Kent, was hard pressed by the fierce northern tribes, and that he determined to set a thief to catch a thief. He sent to the English pirates, and begged them to come and help him. Little did he think that by so doing he was paving the way for an English conquest of his country. Hengist and Horsa came at Vortigern's call. Their ships sailed up with a fair wind to the gravel spit of Ebbsfleet, and there they landed and formed a camp. I need not tell the story all over again. You remember that Hengist and Horsa, at the head of their men, drove away the Picts and Scots, and then turned their arms against the Britons. After a long war Hengist became master of Kent, and thus set up the first English kingdom in Britain. \*

7. What Hengist had done other English war-chiefs thought that they could do too. They swarmed across the North Sea, and in various parts of the country set up little kingdoms of their own. One hundred and fifty years after the landing of Hengist and Horsa the English ruled in this land from the North Sea to the Severn, and from the English Channel to the Firth of Forth.

8. Britain had become England. No longer was it the land of the Britons, but the land of the English. Now, who were these English? Where did they come from,

and what manner of people were they? Look at this map. It shows you the fatherland of the English race. You will see the names of three tribes on the map—the Saxons, the Angles, and the Jutes.

9. The Saxons lived about the lower courses of the German rivers the Ems, Weser, and Elbe. The Jutes lived in the northern half of the peninsula which separates the North Sea from the Baltic Sea. Their first home is still called Jutland—that is, the land of the Jutes. The Angles dwelt between the Saxons and the Jutes, in the heart of the same peninsula.

10. Now all these tribes were akin. They had the same blood in their veins and spoke the same speech. They all had the same kind of religion and government, and they lived in the same kind of country. It was a “wild waste of heather and sand, girt along the coast with sunless woodland, broken here and there by meadows which crept down to the marshes and the sea.”



THE FIRST HOME OF THE ENGLISH.

11. Here they lived a hard life as hunters, fishers, and farmers. The barren soil drove them to the sea, and in their long, swift keels they harried the coasts of richer lands, and returned laden with spoil. A Roman poet sang of them: "Foes are they fierce beyond other foes; the sea is their school of war and the storm their friend; they are sea-wolves that live on the plunder of the world."

12. The Jutes were the smallest of the three tribes, but they were the first to settle in England. Hengist and Horsa and the men who founded the kingdom of Kent were Jutes. The Angles conquered the whole of East Britain from the Stour to the Forth, and gave their name to the whole land. The Saxons spread southward from the Stour to the English Channel, and westward to the Severn and the Mendip Hills. The countryman of Southern England gets his fair hair, his blue eyes, and his bluff, hearty nature from his Saxon sires.

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## 5. THE MAKING OF ENGLAND.—I.

1. To-day we will visit the University Library of Cambridge. Let us make friends with the librarian, and ask him to show us some of the manuscripts of great age and priceless value which are kept in the library. Amongst them are two copies of the oldest book of English history which we possess. This book is written in Latin, and was the work of a Welsh monk named Gildas, who has been called "the wisest of the Britons." He is said to have been born less than seventy years after the first settlement of the Jutes.

2. Gildas wrote his book in a monastery of Brittany, to

which he retired about the year 550, when the Britons were hopelessly beaten and the English were firmly established in the land. Gildas gives us an account of the conquest of Britain, and no doubt he derived much of it from the lips of men who had actually taken part in the great struggle. Let us see what we can learn from his pages about the making of England.

3. We learn first of all what I told you in the last lesson—namely, that Britain was conquered by independent bands of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, who pushed across the North Sea in their war-keels. The Jutes were the first to make a permanent settlement, but they were destined to occupy a much smaller part of Britain than the Angles and Saxons. Their conquests only extended to Kent, the Isle of Wight, and part of what is now Hampshire. Kent took the Jutes twenty-five years or more to subdue. By the end of that time, however, the English kingdom of Kent was firmly founded.

4. The Saxons had been the first English pirates to trouble the shores of Britain. They had made many plundering raids before the departure of the Romans, and were well known to the Britons, who therefore called all the invaders by the common name Saxon. To this day the Celt of Wales and of the Highlands of Scotland speaks of his English neighbours as Saxon.

5. The Saxons made their first invasion of Britain about twenty-seven years after the landing of the Jutes. They were led by their chief *Ælle* and his son *Cissa*, and they landed on the shores of what is now Sussex, at the very spot where the Normans disembarked five hundred and seventy-five years later. *X*

### PEVENSEY CASTLE.

This castle is of Roman origin, and was built to resist the attacks of the Saxons. It is largely constructed of Roman bricks, and is the castle referred to on page 29 as being captured by the Saxons under Ælle. A thousand years ago, the sea, which is now a mile away, came up to its walls. Close by William the Conqueror landed in 1066.



6. The coast was guarded by a Roman fortress, but it fell before the fierce and pitiless Saxons, who, Gildas tells us, "left not a Briton alive." Then *Ælle* founded the kingdom of the South Saxons, which still keeps its name as the county of Sussex. It was always a small kingdom, because it was prevented from expanding northward by the great forest of the Weald.

7. The third invasion was on a much larger scale. It, too, was an invasion of Saxons, and it took place about twenty years after the descent of *Ælle* and his followers. The leader of this invasion was *Cerdic*, from whom nearly all the kings of England are descended. *Cerdic* and his men landed on the shores of Southampton Water, and at once began fighting their way northward. The kingdom which they established was that of the West Saxons, or *Wessex*, so called because it was formed to the west of *Sussex*.

8. Under *Ceawlin*, who became King of *Wessex* in the latter half of the sixth century, *Wessex* was greatly extended, and the three Roman cities—*Bath*, *Gloucester*, and *Cirencester*—were captured. The founding of *Wessex* is most important, for it afterwards became the leading kingdom of England.

9. Gildas writes in a very sad and gloomy strain when he tells us of the triumph of the Saxons, and dwells upon the vices and weaknesses of his own countrymen which prevented them from driving out the foe. He tells us of the awful slaughter, the spoiling and burning of homesteads, the leading into captivity, and all the shame and horror of the conquest.

10. The Saxons, he tells us, showed no mercy even when the battle was won. "Some of the Britons," says Gildas, "were caught in the hills and slaughtered; others were worn out with hunger, and yielded to a life-long slavery. Some passed across the sea, others trusted their lives to the clefts of the mountains, to the forests, and the rocks of the sea."

11. We must not, however, imagine that the Saxons simply came, saw, and conquered. They had to fight very hard indeed to establish themselves in the land, and frequently received severe checks at the hands of the British. The famous hero Arthur, who defeated the Saxons with great slaughter at Mount Badon, is not mentioned by Gildas, who died in the year of this victory.

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## 6. THE MAKING OF ENGLAND.—II.

1. Meanwhile the ruthless strangers from across the sea were making settlements in other parts of England. Gildas does not give us clear information about the founding of these kingdoms, so we must piece the story together from the confused accounts of other writers.

2. Between the Thames and the Stour a band of Saxons founded the kingdom of the East Saxons, or Essex. To the north of the Stour the third great division of the invaders established itself. This was the Angle or Engle, who founded three kingdoms, which taken together then formed the greater part of the conquered land. For this reason the whole land was called England, and not Saxony.

3. The great Angle kingdoms were East Anglia, which consisted of the North Folk and South Folk, represented by the modern counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, and Middle England or Mercia. In Book III. you read how Ida, the Angle, seizing Bamburgh Castle, founded the kingdom which was called Northumbria.

4. Now look on page 32. It shows you the various English kingdoms as they existed at the end of the sixth century. You notice that the whole western side of the land from the Clyde to the English Channel was in the hands of the British. As you will see from the map, the rest of the country was divided into seven kingdoms.

5. Warfare was no longer waged between Briton and Englishman for possession of the land, but between Englishman and Englishman for supremacy between the various kingdoms which Angle, Saxon, and Jute had founded. The story of our land for the next three hundred years is the story of how these kingdoms became unified—that is, welded into one great kingdom.

6. In the beginning of the ninth century a king of Wessex made himself overlord of the whole land. The work of union was interrupted for a time by the invasions of the Danes; but these invasions themselves were in the end the greatest help towards unity, for they caused all Englishmen to join together, under the House of Wessex, to subdue the Danes. The first real king of all England was Alfred's descendant, Edgar, and after him, Cnut the Dane made England the centre of an empire which included Denmark and Norway. The English people owe much of their great success to the fact that their land was unified



early in its history, and that when the tribes on the Continent were fighting and struggling for union, England was united and at peace with herself. X

7. We cannot follow the story of the ups and downs of the various kingdoms in detail. Sometimes a strong king would make his power felt far and wide ; but his lordship was far from secure, and frequently the conqueror of one day was the hunted fugitive or the mangled corpse of the next. For example, about the year 597, Ethelbert, King of Kent, made himself supreme over Sussex, Kent, Essex, East Anglia, and Mercia. His supremacy, however, was not long-lived.

8. Ethelfrith, the King of Northumbria, soon urged his kingdom to the front. As you already know, he was slain in battle, and then Redwald, King of the East Angles, became prominent. Northumbria, however, became so powerful under Edwin that he was acknowledged as over-lord from the Forth to the English Channel, with the single exception of Kent. After the death of Edwin in battle, Mercia, under her heathen king Penda, began to assert itself ; but Penda was slain in turn, and once more the star of Northumbria was in the ascendant. It blazed for thirty years, and then paled its fires for ever.

9. At length the rivalry was narrowed down to a struggle between Mercia and Wessex, and during the greater part of the eighth century Mercia was the more powerful. Offa, a Mercian king who reigned from 755 to 794, was the greatest king whom England had yet seen. He pushed back the Britons, and built a dike from Chester to Chepstow to mark the western boundary of

his kingdom. He also drove the men of Wessex south of the Thames, and was acknowledged as the supreme lord of England.

10. The sceptre, however, passed away from Mercia with the death of Offa, and fell into the hands of Wessex, a state that had chiefly busied itself in winning broad lands from the Welsh rather than in striving for supremacy among its kinsmen. In a later lesson we shall learn how the ruler of Wessex became overlord of all England.

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## 7. HEATHENS AND CHRISTIANS.

1. You already know that when the English came to Britain they were a rude, uncivilized race of warriors, farmers, and sailors. They could not build fine houses, they could not write or read books, they could not paint pictures or carve statues. They saw with wonder the fine Roman cities, but they did not at first dwell in them, for they hated town life and loved the open country.

2. The newcomers found themselves the possessors of a fertile and civilized land. Their own country was poor and barren. In Britain they found broad meadows and fine hill pastures, with flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. Orchards and vineyards and great cornfields were common ; there were ironworks, tin mines, quarries, potteries, glass-works, and fisheries. Splendid stone-made roads good for travelling all the year round crossed the country ; the rivers were bridged and the fords were staked or stone-bedded. There were safe and convenient ports, and there was a

large trade with the Continent in grain, metal, jet, slaves, hounds, and horses.

3. To this rich land came the English, a race of uncivilized heathens. Their religion was fierce, warlike, and bloodthirsty. They believed in many gods, such as *Wodin*, the wisest of the gods and the father of victory ; *Thor*, the thunder-god ; *Tiu*, the god of war ; *Freya*, the goddess of love ; and many others. The days of the week—Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday—still retain for us the names of the four chief gods of the English. Tuesday is Tiu's day ; Wednesday, Wodin's day ; Thursday, Thor's day ; and Friday, Freya's day.

4. The English also believed in ogres or giants, in dwarfs who dwelt beneath the ground, making magic weapons and charmed rings, and in elves, the fairies of the woods, meadows, and wells. They carefully buried or burned their dead, lest the angry souls should haunt the spot where their uncared-for bodies lay. By the side of the dead man they placed food and drink, weapons and slaughtered horses, so that he might have the means of hunting and feasting in the future life.

5. The English believed that after death they would live in Valhalla, where they would spend the days in the fierce delights of war, in cleaving helmets and hacking limbs. At nightfall their wounds would be healed, and they would sit feasting on a great boar whose flesh never got less, and drinking mead out of the skulls of their enemies.

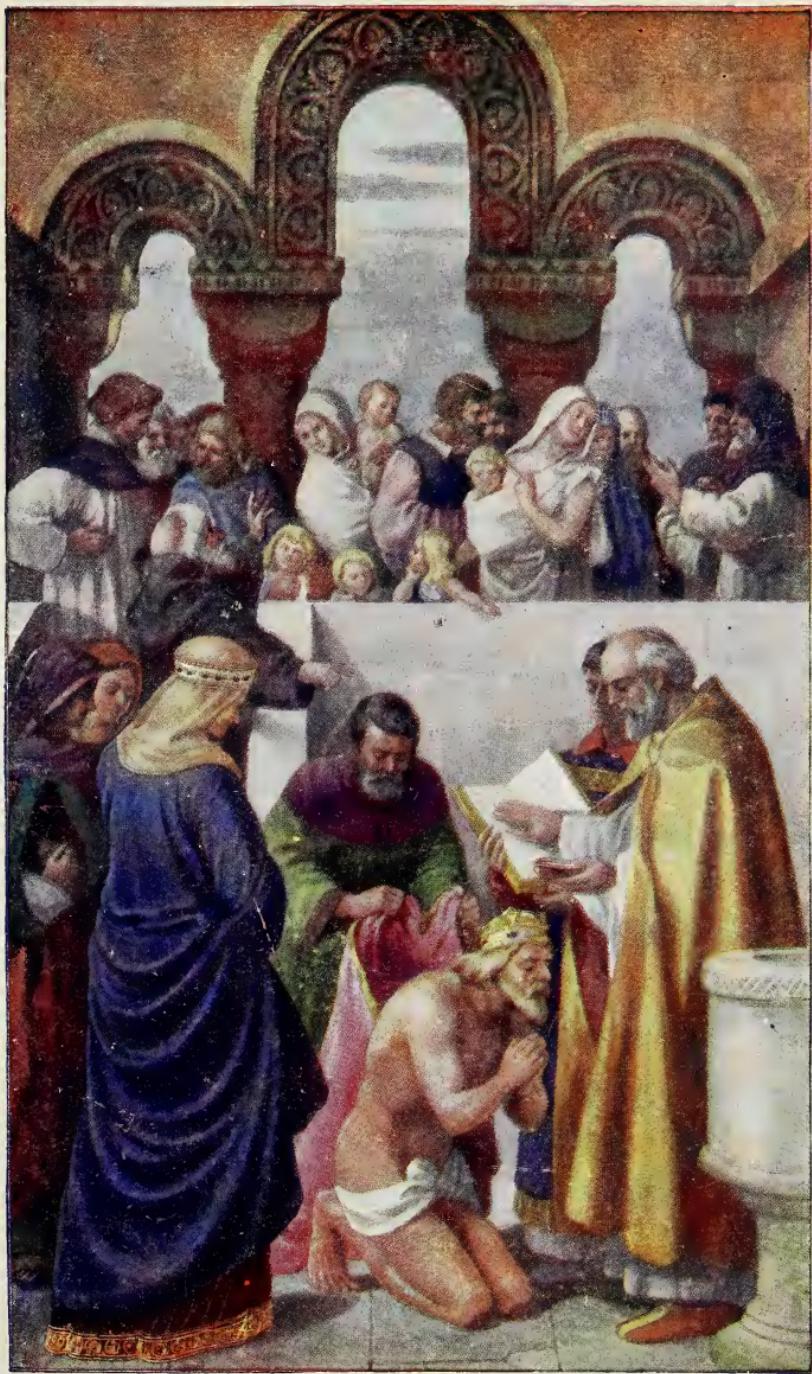
6. Cowards, they believed, would be shut out of Valhalla, and sent to dark places of famine and torment. They thought that they could never attain to Valhalla by dying

peacefully in their beds. When a peaceful death seemed to be their lot, they would wound themselves with knife or spear, or throw themselves from the cliffs, or set sail in a little boat to wrestle with the sea and the storm. They believed that, after perishing amidst the waves, they would pass at once to Wodin's halls.

7. Valhalla, they believed, would at last pass away, and another heaven would take its place. Then this, in turn, would disappear. Monsters would devour the sun and the moon, tear up the mountains and trees, and blot the stars out of heaven, until one wide shoreless sea covered the whole world. Then after a terrible fight, a huge wolf would devour Wodin and the other gods, and finally the wolf's jaws would be torn asunder and everything would utterly perish.

8. In this fierce, hopeless belief the English remained for nearly one hundred and fifty years after they first settled in this country. During this time they were conquering the Britons, and either driving them into the fastnesses of the west or completely wiping them out. We must think of this hundred and fifty years as a time during which all the middle and east of the country entirely passed into English hands. Towards the close of the sixth century, as you already know, the English conquest was complete.

9. Then came the wondrous change wrought by Augustine and his band of monks. I have already told you how they came to visit this land. I am sure you will remember the story of Gregory and the slave boys at Rome. You will remember, too, how Ethelbert became a Christian, and how, one by one, the other kings followed his example.



### Baptism of Ethelbert.

*(From the fresco in the House of Lords by William Dyce, R.A.)*

One hundred years after the coming of Augustine all England had been won from its old heathen darkness.

10. Rome was then the great centre of learning and education. Bands of monks came from Rome to this country and settled down in monasteries. They taught the people, not only the truths of religion, but the arts of reading, writing, building, painting, and healing the sick. Students flocked to these monasteries, eager to learn, and soon the people began to make progress in civilization.

11. In the course of time the English inhabited the old Roman cities once more, and many of them became skilful craftsmen. Churches were built, at first of wood, then of stone. The laws were made more merciful, the people threw off their fierce, lawless ways, tillage was improved, and trade began to be important.

12. In Book III. you were told the story of St. Aidan, in order to show you that there was Christianity in this land before the coming of the Roman monks. The Britons in their highlands of the west were Christians, and so were the people of Ireland, which was then called the "Isle of Saints." Irish monks, you will remember, established their headquarters at Iona, and from their little island home made missionary journeys amongst the people of Scotland and of north England.

13. Long before Augustine came to this country, missionaries were wandering from one cluster of huts to another over the wild moors of Yorkshire preaching the Christian faith. At certain places along the coast monasteries had been set up.

## 8. ALFRED THE GREAT.—I.

1. Come with me to the grand old university city of Oxford. We are not going to wander through the colleges, or stroll in Christchurch meadows, or go for a row on the Isis. We are going to visit the Ashmolean Museum. In one of the show-cases, carefully preserved, we shall see a priceless jewel. It is a locket made of enamel, enclosed in a setting of gold. On the enamel is the figure of a man, and round the figure are the words, “ÆLFRED ME HAET GEWERCAN,” or “*Alfred had me made.*” This jewel was dug up some nine hundred years after Alfred had dropped it in the island of Athelney, where, as you already know, he sought refuge from the Danes.

2. Now, with this genuine relic of King Alfred before us, let us learn something more about his career than we already know. We will go to the pages of a learned Welshman named Asser, who was greatly beloved by Alfred, and who lived for a certain part of every year in the king's household. Asser wrote a life of his friend the king, in Latin, and translations of this life are to be found in our libraries to-day. Let us turn to a copy and see what it tells us about one who was not only the greatest king of his time, but perhaps the greatest of all our kings.



ALFRED'S JEWEL.

3. Asser begins by telling us that Alfred was the fourth son of King Ethelwulf, and was born in the year 849 at the royal village of Wantage in Berkshire. He then traces Alfred's descent through noble persons right back to Adam. His mother was Osburh, daughter of Oslac, the famous cup-bearer of King Ethelwulf.

4. When Alfred was three years of age, the Danes first wintered in the island called Sheppey (which means "Sheep Island"), situated in the river Thames between Essex and Kent. In the same year a great army of Danes, with three hundred and fifty ships, entered the mouth of the Thames, sacked London and Canterbury, and put to flight the army of the King of Mercia. Ethelwulf and his son Ethelbald met them in battle at Oakley or "Oak Plain," in the year 851, and after much stubborn fighting won a great victory. Another victory followed soon after, and nine Danish ships were captured, while the others only escaped by flight.

5. In the fifth year of Alfred's life he was sent, with an honourable escort, to visit Pope Leo at Rome. The Pope anointed the child, adopted him as his son, and confirmed him. Two years later Ethelwulf himself journeyed to Rome, taking Alfred with him for the second time, and remaining there a whole year.

6. In the meantime Ethelbald, Ethelwulf's unruly son, formed a conspiracy to oust his father from his kingdom of Wessex. To prevent civil war, Ethelwulf agreed to a division of his kingdom, Kent and Sussex being given to the father, and the remainder to the son. Ethelwulf lived two years after his return from Rome, and on his death Ethelbald became King of Kent and Sussex.

7. In the twelfth year of Alfred's life Ethelbald died, and his brother Ethelbert became king of the reunited kingdom. Ethelbert reigned five years "in peace and love and honour, and went the way of all flesh, to the great grief of his subjects." In 866, Ethelred, the third son of King Ethelwulf, became king, and Alfred, now in his eighteenth year, ruled with him.

8. At this point Asser breaks off his narrative to tell us about Alfred's youth and education. He says: "As Alfred advanced through the years of infancy and youth, he appeared more comely in person than his brothers, as in countenance, speech, and manners he was more pleasing than they. His noble birth and noble nature implanted in him from his cradle a love of wisdom above all things."

9. Then Asser proceeds to tell us the pretty story of how Alfred's mother tried to encourage her sons to educate themselves by the offer of a book of Saxon poetry to the one who was first able to read it. As you already know, Alfred won the prize.

10. In his twentieth year Alfred married a noble Mercian lady named Mucill. Meanwhile, the Danes, growing bolder and bolder, had now become a grievous peril to the land. In the year of Alfred's marriage they marched on York, and, capturing it, pushed into Mercia and wintered at Nottingham. In the twenty-second year of Alfred's life they triumphed over Edmund, King of the East Angles, whom they martyred, and in the next year King Ethelred and Alfred were overcome by them at Reading.

**9. ALFRED THE GREAT.—II.**

1. Roused by grief and shame at the loss of this battle, the English advanced against the Danes at a place called Ashdown. While Ethelred remained in his tent at prayer, Alfred marched his men on to the battlefield, and, "with the rush of a wild boar," attacked the enemy, who had seized the high ground. The battle was long and fierce, and at nightfall victory rested with the English. Their joy was short-lived: a fortnight later the Danes were again victorious, and soon after another army from over the sea joined them.

2. In the same year Ethelred died of his wounds, and Alfred came to the throne. A month later he fought a fierce battle with a small army and on very unequal terms against his old enemies at Wilton, and was defeated. "Let no one be surprised," says Asser, "that the English had but a small number of men, for they had been all but worn out by eight battles in this self-same year, in the which there died one king, nine chieftains, and innumerable troops of soldiers."

3. Northumbria and Mercia were overrun by the Danes, who now settled in these kingdoms. They parted the land amongst themselves by lot, "sowing and tilling it as their own." Soon they once more attacked their old foes in Wessex. After two years of desperate fighting, Alfred was forced to seek refuge in the woodlands and swamps of Somersetshire. At Athelney, a marsh-girt spot between the Tone and the Parret, Alfred made a stronghold, and from thence "sallied with his vassals of

Somerset to make frequent and unwearied assaults upon the heathen." It was here that Alfred lost the jewel which is now in the museum at Oxford.

4. "The seventh week after Easter," says Asser, "Alfred rode to Egbert's Stone, which is in the eastern part of Selwood Forest. Here he was met by all the neighbouring folk of Somersetshire and Wiltshire, and such of Hampshire as had not sailed beyond sea for fear of the Danes. When they saw the king restored alive, as it were, after such great tribulation, they were filled with joy, and encamped there for one night.

5. "At daybreak of the following morning the king struck his camp and came to Eglea [part of Southleigh Wood], where he encamped for one night. The next morning at dawn he moved his standards to Edington, and there fought by means of a close shield-wall against the whole army of the Danes, whom, at length, with the Divine help, he defeated with great slaughter, and pursued them flying to their stronghold at Chippenham.

6. "Alfred slew all the men, and carried off all the horses and cattle that he could find without the fortress, and thereupon pitched his camp with all his army before the gates of the Danish stronghold. And when he had remained there fourteen days, the Danes, terrified by hunger, cold, fear, and, last of all, by despair, begged for peace. They engaged to give the king as many hostages as he pleased, and to receive none from him in return—in which manner they had never before made peace with any one.

7. "The king took pity on them, and received from them hostages as many as he would. Thereupon the Danes



ALFRED SUBMITTING HIS LAWS TO THE WITAN.  
*(From the picture by John Bridges.)*

swore that they would straightway leave the kingdom, and their king, Guthrum, promised to embrace Christianity and receive baptism at King Alfred's hands—all of which articles he and his men fulfilled as they had promised. After three weeks Guthrum, with thirty men chosen from his army, came to Alfred at a place called Aller, near Athelney, and there King Alfred, receiving him as a son by adoption, raised him up from the holy font of baptism. After his baptism he remained twelve days with the king, who, together with all his companions, gave him rich gifts."

8. In the year 879 the Danes left Chippenham, and after a time retired into East Anglia, where they divided up the country. The more warlike and roving spirits amongst them, however, sailed for Gaul and Germany, where they harried less valiant kings; the remainder settled down quietly in the Danelaw of East England.

9. At this point Asser leaves the history of Alfred's struggles with the Danes to tell us something of the man himself. He tells us that all through his life Alfred was a martyr to ill-health, but that he would not permit the infirmities of his body to prevent him from carrying on his government, from hunting, teaching his goldsmiths and his workmen, his falconers, hawkers, and dog-keepers, building houses after new designs, reciting the Saxon books, and learning by heart, and making others learn, the Saxon poems.

10. Never was king more eager to advance learning and make new discoveries. Our first accounts of Arctic exploration were written by Alfred. He also built new war-galleys, the better to meet the Danes at sea. Alfred's

galleys were swifter, steadier, and higher, and almost twice as long as those of the Danes. Some had sixty oars, some more ; and all were built, not on the Danish model, but according to Alfred's own ideas.

11. Alfred found many of his towns without fortifications and in ruins. He rebuilt London and other towns, as well as two monasteries, one of them at Athelney, where he gathered together monks of all kinds from every quarter, and there settled them. He also built a convent at Shaftesbury.

12. Alfred gave the best of his attention to four things—to law, justice, religion, and education. Asser concludes his book by telling us what Alfred did for justice, which was in a dreadful state at this time. He collected and studied the old laws of the nation. What he thought good he retained ; what he disapproved he left out. Then he laid these before the Witan, and they became the law of the land.

13. Alfred himself translated Bede's "History" into English. He also ordered the old history book now known as the "Old English Chronicle" to be written in English and the story brought down to his own day. This chronicle was carefully kept, chained to a desk in Winchester Minster, and was added to from time to time down to the coronation of Henry the Second. From Bede's book and this chronicle we derive most of the history of these early times.

14. Alfred died in the year 901. Many historians regard him as "the most perfect character in history." He brought his land out of tumult and the darkness of despair into great peace and prosperity. He enlarged the

bounds of Wessex, and saved England from becoming the prey of the Viking. He was a saint and a scholar, a warrior who fought only in defence of his land, and a conqueror who was never cruel. There are few other names in history to compare with his.

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## 10. THE VIKINGS.—I.

1. In the last lesson you read a great deal about the new invaders whom Asser and the English people generally called the Danes. A better name for them is Vikings, or “creek men.” These sea-rovers of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were so called because they were in the habit of mooring their ships in the bays and creeks, ready to pounce upon peaceful merchant ships passing their shores.

2. The Vikings were of the same race as the English, their language was somewhat similar, and their customs were largely the same. The Vikings of the eighth and ninth centuries resembled in all respects the Englishmen who had conquered Britain in the sixth century. History was repeating itself. Just as the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes had swarmed across the seas, sailed up the rivers, plundered homesteads, fired houses, and slaughtered or carried off into captivity the British inhabitants of the country, so now the Vikings descended upon the English and treated them in the same way.

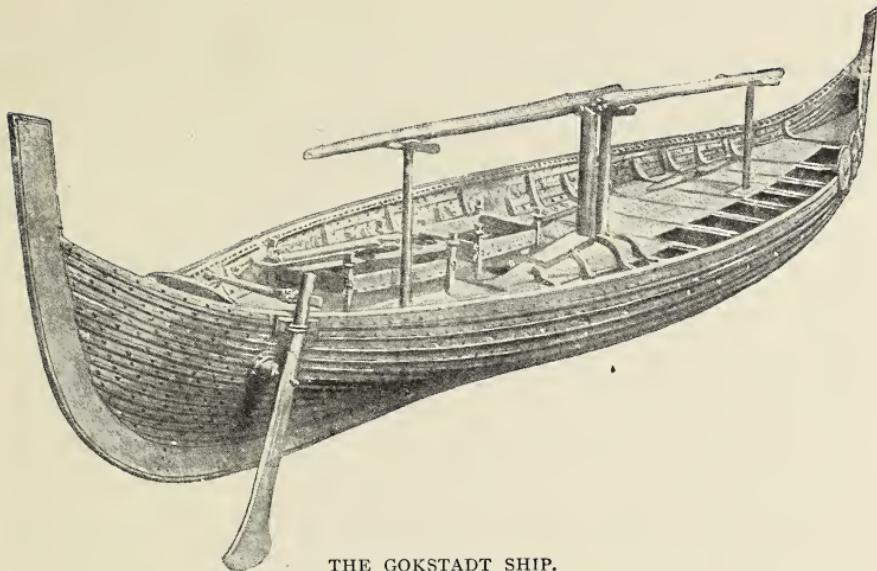
3. While the English had been converted to Christianity and had become partly civilized, the Vikings still gloried in their descent from Wodin, and revelled in bloodthirsty

warfare. They hated those who had abandoned the old, fierce faith of their fathers for the mild worship of Christ, and fell upon them with especial fury. They shed with joy the blood of priests ; they loved to rob and defile churches. They were a scourge not only to England, Scotland, and Ireland, but to the whole of Europe. France, Italy, Sicily, Russia, and Germany, all were their prey.

4. No race of the ancient or modern world has ever "followed the sea" with such fearlessness and keen delight as the Vikings. The sea was their "swan road," their "Viking path," their "land of the keel," their "glittering home." The ships were their "deer of the surf" and their "horses of the sea." We know exactly what these ships were like, for in the year 1880 a burial-mound was opened at Gokstadt, in Southern Norway, and a Viking ship was unearthed.

5. This ship was sixty-six feet long on the keel, and seventy-eight feet over all. It was fifteen and a half feet in extreme width, three and a half feet deep, was clincher built, and caulked with hair. Its proportions were beautiful, and the whole ship was light, strong, and graceful. When the ship was dug up it was found to contain a chamber in which lay the bones of some forgotten Viking chief, together with the remains of dogs and peacocks. Around the ship's sides were the skeletons of thirteen horses. The prow was turned seaward, as though ready for a voyage.

6. All Viking ships were built on this model, and they varied in length from fifty feet to a hundred and fifty feet or more, and had from twelve to thirty-five seats for the rowers. The larger vessels were decked, and had cabins



THE GOKSTAD SHIP.

*(From the model in the Pitt Rivers Museum, Oxford.)*

below and a raised platform aft. Usually they were painted white, blue, or red. Over the gunwale were hung the warriors' shields, both to save space and to serve as armour-plate.

7. Both ends of the ship were built alike, so that it could be sailed with equal ease in either direction. Each ship had one mast, with a square sail of woollen stuff, either white or coloured in stripes of blue, red, and green. The high prows of the ship were carved into the likeness of a dragon, a bird, or some other animal. In these somewhat small and not very seaworthy ships the Vikings made voyages which are simply astounding to us to-day. For example, they not only crossed the North Sea to the Orkneys, and to the Humber, but actually discovered Iceland, Greenland, and, according to some writers, North America.

8. Their barks were to be found on all the seas of Western Europe, not only because the Vikings loved the life of a rover, but because they were now obliged to seek new homes in foreign lands. The King of Norway, Harold Fairhair, had overcome the petty kings of Norway one after another, and had made himself supreme king. Many of the petty kings took to their ships, and with their wives and families set off across the "swan road," to find new homes for themselves in distant and better-favoured lands. They were joined by numbers of the freemen, who found their rights taken from them by the king, and heavy taxes placed on their shoulders.

9. We may divide the Viking invasions of England into three periods. The first period was the raiding period. The Vikings sailed up the river mouths, threw up stockaded earthworks as their headquarters, and then scoured the country far and wide, slaying the people, burning the towns and minsters, carving blood-eagles on the backs of the priests, and carrying off cattle and goods till the land was bare and their ships were full of booty. This period lasted from A.D. 787 to about 866.

10. The second period was that of settlement. By the end of the ninth century Vikings had set up kingdoms in Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Orkneys, in Yorkshire and in East Anglia. The largest of these kingdoms was that known as the Danelaw, which, as you know, is the part of England where the Danes were masters. Its greatest extent is shown by the map on page 52. It included the famous five boroughs of Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, Stamford, and Derby.

## II. THE VIKINGS.—II.

1. You will remember that before the coming of the Danes, England bid fair to become one kingdom under one king. The Danish invasions interrupted this good work ; but after the death of Alfred it was resumed, and Edward, his son, was the first king who could claim to be overlord of all Britain. Athelstan, his son, fought a great battle against the Vikings and the Scots, and won a splendid victory at Brunanburgh, after which he had but little trouble from either Scot or Northman. In the reign of Edward and his sons, Athelstan and Edmund, the whole Danelaw south of the Humber was recovered from the Danes.

2. Edgar the Peace-winner, who began to reign nine years after the death of Edmund, was the first real “King of all England.” In the year 973, so runs the legend, he was rowed on the river Dee at Chester by eight under-kings, including the King of Scots, who all swore to be faithful to him. “Those who come after me,” said Edgar, “may indeed call themselves kings, since I have had such honour.”

3. Edgar was only thirty-two when he died, and his children were mere boys. Bitter strife arose amongst the nobles, and in 978 a foolish, cruel, and unjust king, Ethelred the Redeless, or Ill-Counselled, was set upon the throne. Then came a time of grave danger.

4. After an interval of thirty years, the raids of the Vikings began again, and this time on a far larger scale than ever before. The Viking leaders of earlier times had been adventurers of noble blood ; now a national host, led by the king himself, was about to conquer the rich and

tempting land beyond the North Sea. The third period, that of conquest, had begun, and England was soon to be ruled by Danish kings.

5. In 991 came the first great blow. A numerous body of Vikings landed, and at Maldon they utterly defeated the men of East Anglia, despite the splendid valour of their thanes, who vowed not to yield, and fell one by one beside



MAP SHOWING DANELAW (DANELAGH).

whenever their purses were empty. Actually a tax known as the Danegeld was levied on all the land in England, and the proceeds were handed over to the greedy pirates.

7. The life-blood of the country was rapidly draining away, and in the year 1002 Ethelred ordered the massacre of St. Brice's Day of which you have already read. Amongst the thousands of slain was Gunhilda, the sister

of Sweyn, along with her husband and child. When Sweyn heard the news, he determined to wrest England from the cowardly murderer who sat upon its throne.

8. In 1003 his great fleet touched our shores, and for four years he marched through the length and breadth of Southern and Eastern England, “lighting his war-beacons as he went in blazing homestead and town.” He was bribed to withdraw, but soon he returned for a still more terrible onset.

9. Slowly but surely the Danes gained ground, and after ten years of fighting, Ethelred was forced to flee to Normandy, and the Witan chose Sweyn as king in his stead. Canute, or Cnut, Sweyn’s son, succeeded his father, and carried on the war. After the death of Ethelred, his son, Edmund Ironside, became the leader of the English. He was a true hero, and had he come sooner to the throne he might have saved England from the Danes. Unhappily he died in 1016, and Cnut became sole King of all England.

10. England has had few better rulers than Cnut, who was also King of Norway and Denmark. He sent back the greater part of his invading army; and the better to govern his new kingdom, he appointed great earls to rule Mercia, Northumbria, East Anglia, and Wessex. He restored many of the best laws of the old kings, and placed Englishmen in all the important offices. He rebuilt monasteries and cathedrals, and made a pilgrimage to Rome.

11. Cnut was the first of our kings to maintain a standing army. From the earliest times the old English kings had kept at their courts a comparatively small number of *huscarles* as a bodyguard. Cnut increased their number up

to several thousands ; they constantly attended him, and formed the basis of any greater force that might be needed. All were picked men of valour, on whose fidelity he could absolutely rely. This force never met its match until it perished at Hastings.

12. Cnut died in 1035, and discord broke out at once. His two sons were rough, godless young men, who hated each other bitterly. For a time they divided the kingdom between them, but in seven years both of them were dead. With them the Viking age in Britain came to an end. The Danes who had settled in the country soon became Englishmen, and brought a new strain of courage, daring, and adventure into the English character. In parts of Yorkshire and East Anglia the people, even to-day, remind us, in build and speech, of their old ancestors the Danes.

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## 12. A VISIT TO NORMANDY.

1. To-day we will pay a visit to Normandy, the home-land of the Normans, the fourth and last conquerors of England. We leave Victoria Station, London, at ten in the morning, and at half-past eleven find ourselves on the quay at Newhaven. A fast turbine steamer awaits our arrival, and as soon as the passengers and luggage are transferred from train to boat, we steam out upon the waters of the English Channel. A voyage of sixty-four miles brings us to the harbour of Dieppe, and before four in the afternoon we are stepping ashore. We are now in Normandy, the land of the Normans,

2. Dieppe is a fashionable watering-place built in a valley between two ranges of white chalk hills. It has splendid sands, and during the summer it is crowded with holiday-makers. As we are not now on pleasure bent, we do not linger in Dieppe, but proceed at once to the railway station and take our tickets for Rouen, the old capital of Normandy. Rouen stands on the Seine, forty-five miles from its mouth, and is a busy cotton manufacturing town and seaport. Nevertheless, it is of the greatest historic interest, and contains some beautiful and ancient buildings. Later on, we shall hope to peep into one of them.

3. If we take train from Rouen and travel about Normandy, we shall pass place after place which is famous in our history. The very names of the hamlets on the roadside call up memories of proud nobles or of old battles and sieges. The green fields with their thick hedgerows of hawthorn and bramble, the elms and the smiling apple-orchards, all seem familiar, and are, indeed, the very picture of an English countryside.

4. Amidst the red-tiled roofs of the quaint little market towns rise the stately towers of noble cathedrals ; and these, too, remind us of home, for they are the models on which some of our great churches have been built. The square gray towers which we see high up on windy heights overlooking orchard and meadow land are exactly like the keeps of many of our old castles. We need not be surprised at this, for Normandy gave us kings and nobles, and for well-nigh two hundred years was a possession of the English crown.

5. There are two places which I am anxious that you



Portion of the Bayeux Tapestry.  
*(Showing scenes from the Battle of Hastings.)*

should see in Normandy. The first of them is the grand old cathedral of Notre Dame at Rouen. It is one of the finest Gothic churches in all the world. We will not stop to admire the wonderful carving over the great central portal, the splendid design of the interior, or the lovely rose windows in the transepts and nave. We will pass at once to the last chapel on the south side of the nave, and stay our steps before the tomb of a great Viking named Rollo or Rolf. Who was this Rolf, and how came he here?

6. Just about the time that Alfred's sons were winning back the Danelaw in England, a Viking fleet sailed up the Seine under the command of an outlawed chief named Rolf. For forty years this Rolf had been a raider; now he was to be a conqueror. The man himself was of huge stature, so long of leg and so heavy of body that no horse could carry him; hence his nickname, Rolf "the Ganger" or walker. ~~X~~

7. Rolf and his men gained possession of Rouen by means of a trick which reminds us very much of the method by which the Greeks captured Troy. Then the Viking began devastating and conquering the country round about, and finally laid siege to Paris itself. Charles the Simple, the King of France, was forced to treat Rolf just as Alfred had treated Guthrum. Rolf was offered Rouen and the district surrounding it, on condition that he would become a Christian and do homage to Charles.

8. When Rolf learned that doing homage to Charles meant that he must kiss the king's foot, he refused to degrade himself by such an act, and once more laid siege

to Paris. At last the French king agreed that one of Rolf's men should do homage in his stead. A Viking was chosen "from the ranks," and at the appointed time this worthy strode up to the stool on which Charles was sitting, but instead of stooping to kiss the king's foot, seized the king's leg and jerked it up to his mouth. In doing so, he tilted the monarch off his seat! Swords were drawn and bloodshed was threatened, but the king poured oil on the troubled waters by declaring that he had received a well-merited lesson.

9. Thus the Vikings got a footing in North France. As they came from the north, it was quite natural that the French people should call them Northmen and their land Northman's land. In the course of time this name was softened into Normandy. The new-comers did not at once unite with the native population, as the Danes had done in England, but held themselves proudly aloof, retaining their own language, manners, and customs. In the end, however, they blended with the people of the land in which they had settled. The heathen pirates became French Christians; the rough Vikings threw off their semi-barbarous ways, and became the most civilized race in Europe, though always turbulent, quick to anger, and eager for battle.

10. Rollo died in 911, and a hundred and fifty years later the Normans had become the foremost race in Europe. They learned or discovered new modes of fighting, and they used new weapons such as the shield, the lance, and the long-bow. They were masterly horsemen, and their fame as warriors spread far and wide. They built magnificent cathedrals, and founded churches and monasteries. The sons

and grandsons of the rough pirate chiefs became courtly knights and learned bishops.

11. In the year 1035, William, then eight years of age, succeeded his father Robert as Duke of Normandy. The early part of his reign was full of perils and alarms, and only after much hard fighting did he force his nobles to acknowledge him as duke. At length, however, he restored law and order throughout the duchy, and then was ready to do those deeds which marked him out as “the most masterly spirit of the most masterly race of his time.”

12. Now come with me to the little Norman town of Bayeux, and I will show you something worth travelling many miles to see. You will find Bayeux on the map to the north-west of Caen, the old town in which William was buried. Bayeux is a small place now, but in the time of the Conqueror it was very important indeed. Many of the houses are of wood, and in the midst of them rises a cathedral, said to be the oldest in Normandy. It was originally built by Bishop Odo of Bayeux, half-brother of William.

13. We make our way to the Public Library, which contains a small museum. Here we shall find the precious thing which I have brought you so far to see. It is a huge piece of tapestry, consisting of a strip of linen cloth 230 feet long and 19 inches wide, extended along the side of a large room, and exposed to view under glass. The tapestry, or rather embroidery, consists of a large number of pictures worked with a needle in coloured worsteds. The various scenes illustrate the events which led up to the Norman conquest of England.

14. There are seventy-two of these scenes, showing six hundred and twenty-three persons, seven hundred and sixty-two horses, dogs, and other animals, thirty-seven buildings, forty-one ships or boats, and forty-nine trees. The figures are worked in worsteds of eight different colours, and are still bright and clear. The English are all represented with moustaches, while the Normans have none.

15. This wonderful piece of tapestry is said to be the work of Queen Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, and her ladies. It is said that the queen's death alone prevented her from adding a scene representing William's coronation. Though we cannot be sure that the work was done by Matilda, we are almost certain that the tapestry was embroidered in the eleventh century, and that it is a faithful record from the Norman point of view of the opening scenes in the conquest of England.

16. I cannot in this book reproduce all the scenes depicted in the Bayeux tapestry, but on page 56 there are some pictures which are typical of the rest. Examine them carefully, and you will see that they illustrate much of what you read in Book III. about the battle of Hastings or Senlac.

17. The pictures of the battle are most interesting. You see William addressing his army, and urging it on to the fight. You also see Odo encouraging the Normans, and William raising his visor to show his men that he is not dead as reported. Then you see the Normans turning on the English, who have broken their ranks to pursue the flying horsemen, and cutting them to pieces. The last two pictures of the series show you the death of Harold and the flight of the English.

**13. DOOMSDAY BOOK.**

1. The victory at Senlac was only the beginning of the conquest of England. William was crowned king on Christmas morning, 1066, but there was many a hard day's fighting to be done before he could call himself master of England. You read in Book III. how Hereward and other brave Englishmen held out against the Norman in the marshes of Ely. Not until Hereward was overcome did the land have peace.

2. William was a conqueror. He had won the land with his sword, and it was his to deal with just as he pleased. He seized the lands of all the Englishmen who had fought at Hastings, or who refused to acknowledge him as rightful king, and with these lands he rewarded his clamorous followers.

3. He did not, however, give them lands for nothing. "If I give you these estates," said he, "you must promise to serve me. You must promise to provide me with so many fully-armed soldiers, and to send them to fight for me, if I need them, for forty days in each year. You must also pay money at certain times—as, for example, when my son is made a knight, or my daughter is married, or I am captured in war and must be ransomed. When your son comes into possession of your lands, he will pay me money; and if you die without heirs, your land will become mine once more."

4. There was nothing new in this plan, as you already know. Something like it existed in England before the coming of the Normans. All the English thanes had to

do the threefold service of fighting for their king, manning his fortresses, and maintaining his fortifications and bridges.

5. The system which William established in England was fully developed in Normandy, and all the Normans were familiar with it. They therefore agreed to their king's terms, and each knight in turn did homage. He knelt before the king, placed his hands in the king's hands, and made this promise of obedience : "Here, my lord, I become liege man of yours for life and limb and earthly regard, and I will keep faith and loyalty to you for life and death, God help me." The king then kissed the knight, and thenceforth the land or "fee" belonged to him and his heirs for all time.

6. William also granted much land to bishops and other great churchmen in the same way, under the same conditions. Thus from the land which he gave away he provided himself with money and an army. A great deal of the land he kept in his own hands.

7. The knights to whom he had given land now granted "fees" or "fiefs" to their followers and friends, and these vassals, as they were called, made the same promise to their lords that their lords had made to the king. In Normandy and other European countries the vassals had to follow their lords even against the king. Now, William had had personal experience of the terrible mischief which this caused, and was determined to prevent it in England.

8. He therefore ordered all the landholders of the realm, great or small, to meet him on Salisbury Plain, and there swear homage to him directly. Thus he made every one who held land, whether granted by the king or by a lord,

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tra. é. xl. caruc. Ad dñiam p̄t. xiii. bid. <sup>for sum</sup> xiiii. car.  
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v. vult̄ q̄sq;. i. hidā. / xiii. vult̄ quisq; de. i. uirg.  
/ xxxiiij. vult̄. q̄sq; dim̄ uirg. / xxii. cot̄ de dim̄ hidā.  
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PORTION OF DOOMSDAY BOOK.

own himself the "man" of the king. The vassal was obliged to follow the king, and not his lord, if his lord should quarrel with the king.

9. Here is a photograph of an old piece of writing. It is part of a book that was written some time between the years 1085 and 1087, and is known as the Doomsday Book. If you go to the Record Office, you will be able to see it for yourself. It is preserved very carefully, because it is the most valuable record which we have of our land in Norman times. Now this book was compiled by order of King William, who wished to know exactly how many landholders there were in his kingdom, and what extent of land they owned. The object of this survey was that William might ascertain what amount of taxation his new kingdom could pay.

10. The king's officers went into every hundred, and the inquiry was made so strictly that an old writer tells us "there was not one single yard of land, nor even one ox,

one cow, nor one swine," that was left out. Because the inquiry was like the day of doom, and every one was questioned at it, the English called it Doomsday Book.

11. We find from Doomsday Book that the people were divided into classes. First, there were the barons or king's vassals—that is, those to whom the king had directly given land. Then came the barons' vassals—that is, those to whom the barons had given estates. All these men undertook to do war service to the king, according to the amount of their land. The king's vassals, as you know, had also to pay him certain sums of money at certain times. In the same way the vassals of the barons had to do service and pay money to their lords.

12. Next below these nobles and their vassals came the freemen or tenant farmers, who rented farms from their lords, and in return gave them money or labour or part of their produce. Then came the mass of the people, some of whom had rights, but most of whom were slaves. Those who had rights were either villeins or cottagers. The villeins held farms like the freemen, but they were "tied to the land"—that is, they were not allowed to give up their farms and go elsewhere, but must always till the land of their lord.

13. Below the villeins came the cottagers, who had no land except the gardens round their houses. For these they had to pay their lord from twenty to thirty shillings a year in our money, and had also to work on his land at harvest and other times. Then came the slaves, who belonged to their lords, and were bought and sold just like cattle. All they received for their labour was food and clothing.



*(From the picture by E. Armitage, R.A. By permission of the Corporation of Liverpool.)*

14. Thus, you see, the people of the country might be represented by a heap of stones piled up in the shape of a sugar-loaf. At the top of all was the king, lord of the land and of every one in it. Next below him were the great lords to whom the king had given large estates. Below these, again, were the lesser lords to whom the great lords had given lands. Below them were the bulk of the English people, who had now changed masters. Instead of the twenty thousand English thanes who held the greater part of the land before the Conquest there were now twenty thousand Normans.

15. You already know that when the Normans came to England they were the foremost race in Europe. Compared with the English, they were fine gentlemen indeed. While the English loved to eat and drink more than was good for them, the Normans despised piles of coarse food and hogsheads of strong drink. Their leaders were far more civilized than the leaders of the English, and loved choice and beautiful things, such as stately houses, noble churches, rich armour, and gallant horses.

16. The Normans were intensely proud, and they looked with contempt on the conquered English. Norman master and English slave were as far apart as they well could be. The Norman in his castle lived and spoke just as he had done in Normandy. He hunted and hawked, played his knightly games, sat on the judgment seat, and feasted in his hall, while the Englishman tended the cattle and toiled in the fields to keep him in plenty.

17. We can learn all this from many of the words which we use every day. Notice these pairs of words: *cow, beef*;

*calf, veal; sheep, mutton; swine, pork; deer, venison.* The first word of each pair is English, the second is French. Now the English names are those given to the animals when alive; the French words are those given to them when dead and ready for cooking. This shows us that the English tended and fed the animals when alive, and that when they were dead the Norman cook made them ready for his master's table.

18. Here are some other French words which we often use—*armour, banner, battle, herald, march, lance.* You notice that they have to do with war. The following words are connected with law—*judge, prisoner, summons.* These refer to Church affairs—*Bible, sermon, friar, and sacrifice;* while *baron, duke, and prince* are the titles of nobles. Now you see that our very language shows us that the Normans were masters of the land. They were the landowners, the leaders of the army, the judges, the chief churchmen, and the nobles.





**A Tournament on London Bridge.**

*(From the picture by R. Beavis.)*

#### 14. THE BUILDING OF THE CASTLES.

1. If ever you go to London, do not fail to visit the Tower. If you live in London, you will be sure to know it well. It stands on the north bank of the Thames, about half a mile to the east of London Bridge. Wherever you go within its gray walls, you will see something to remind you of the great doings and the famous people of bygone days. You will see the warders in their quaint old dresses, the crowns and jewels worn by our kings and queens, old swords, armour, and guns, the block on which so many historical personages have been beheaded, and the room in which the poor little princes were murdered.

2. We have not come to see these interesting things to-day. We have come to look at the oldest part of the building. It is called the White Tower, and it was built by William the Conqueror soon after the battle of Hastings. For eight hundred years and more it has kept watch and ward over the city of London. Of course, it has been much extended and repaired from time to time, but it has not been altered to any very great extent.

3. Now what do we see? We see a great tower or "keep"—"four-square to every wind that blows"—one hundred feet long and one hundred feet broad. It is built of rubble, held together by much mortar, and the



walls are fifteen feet thick. The windows are small and high up ; the door is on the first story, and is reached by a stone staircase. In the days before gunpowder was invented, soldiers within such a keep as this could hold out against a foe just as long as they had food and water. The building could not be battered down, and at best it could only be injured by undermining.

4. The White Tower was the whole Tower of London at first. As time went on, it was made stronger and stronger by adding smaller towers to it, by building strong walls round it, and by digging a ditch or moat outside the walls. In Queen Elizabeth's time it covered a large space of ground, more than twelve acres in all. It is now enclosed by an outer wall with strong towers at the corners, and just outside the wall is a broad ditch or moat. Inside, there are many buildings. The White Tower is the heart of the whole fortress ; if the defenders were driven in from the walls and the towers, the keep would be their last place of refuge.

5. The White Tower is square, but the square keep was not the most common type of Norman castle. In the early twelfth century the round keep was the more usual form. This type of castle grew out of the old English fortification called a *burh*, which consisted of a mound protected by a stockade, and enclosed within outworks of earth and palisading, the whole being surrounded by a ditch. The Normans built a keep or ring of high walls on the mound, and instead of earthworks erected outer walls of masonry. The keep could only hold a small garrison, but in the space enclosed by the outer walls the whole

of the cattle and stores of a country-side could be collected in case of attack. Gradually the outer fortifications were strengthened, and formed the main line of resistance. Projecting towers were also added, so that the defenders could direct a flanking fire upon the attackers as they approached the walls.

6. Now let us fancy that we are living about eight hundred years ago, and that we are about to pay a visit to a Norman castle. We notice that it is built on a high rock, so as to make it difficult of attack, and to prevent the undermining of its walls. As we draw near to it, we see the great, heavy "curtain wall" frowning down upon us. We cross the moat by a bridge, which is drawn up by chains at night, and whenever danger is nigh.

7. We enter by a great stone portal defended by strong towers. When the castle is shut up, a portcullis or grating of timber and iron is let down in front of the heavy iron-bound door. Above the archway are holes through which shots may be fired and molten lead and boiling pitch poured down on the heads of foes who try to get in. The "curtain wall" itself has a kind of projecting stone gallery running round it, with holes pierced in the footway for the same purpose.

8. Now we enter the outer ward or courtyard. On one side are the stables; in the centre is the mound where the lord holds his court, and where the guilty are put to death. Another strong gateway with towers protects the entrance to the inner "ward," in which is the great keep, with its walls thirty feet thick at the base and ten feet at the top.

9. There are several rooms in the keep, one above the

other. Stores are kept on the ground floor ; and here, too, is a deep well to supply the castle with water. A spiral staircase, lighted by loophole windows, brings us up to the first floor, where there are quarters for soldiers. Above this is the hall, in which the lord and lady of the castle take their meals and receive their guests. Their sleeping-rooms and the ladies' bowers are in the thickness of the walls. In the uppermost story of all is the kitchen.

10. Many of the Norman castles that survive in England were built during the days of Henry the First. Scores of others were erected in the time of King Stephen, the grandson of the Conqueror. Stephen, as you know, was a weak man, and during most of his reign he was fighting with his cousin Matilda. The barons, held down by the strong hand of William and his sons, openly defied Stephen. They built unlicensed castles, in which they lived as robber chieftains.

11. The Norman kings had often to besiege many of these castles ; but so massive were they that, as a rule, the only way of capturing them was to starve out the garrison. Rufus, Henry the First, and Stephen conducted many sieges, and their method of attack was usually to block up the exits of the castle, and sit down outside until the besieged were ready to surrender. When, however, for some reason or another, the attack was to be pressed home, machines like giant catapults were used to hurl heavy stones into the castles.

12. Some of these machines were worked by twisted ropes, others were like enormous cross-bows, and others again consisted of a balance with a long beam. One end was loaded with heavy weights, and the other end was

dragged down by sheer force. When this end was released it struck the missile and drove it towards its mark.

13. Sometimes tunnels were dug underground to the foot of the wall, stones were removed from it, and beams of wood with straw and brushwood were substituted for them. When the wood and straw were set on fire the wall fell, and through the breach the attackers entered the castle.

14. Sometimes a wooden tower several stories high was built, and covered with raw hides so that it would not burn. Then the moat, if there was one, was filled up with fagots, and the tower was moved by means of rollers to the foot of the wall. A drawbridge was dropped on to the top of the wall, and the soldiers in the tower rushed across the bridge and overpowered their opponents. The Crusaders gained an entry into the town of Acre by using a machine of this kind. Such were the methods by which castles were besieged for nearly three hundred years after the Norman Conquest.



THE WHITE TOWER AS IT IS TO-DAY.

**15. THE ASSIZES.**

1. If you live in a large city or a county town, you will have noticed that every year judges come to your town to try law cases. Perhaps you have seen them. They are met at the station by the sheriff, who is usually a local landowner appointed by the king to see that justice is properly carried out in the county.

2. The judges are taken to their lodgings, and next day they go in state to church. They wear their robes and wigs, and they look very imposing indeed. The judge who is to try criminals wears a red gown, and the judge who is to try disputes between individuals wears a black gown. They ride in a state carriage, with men in the sheriff's livery on the box and standing up behind. As the judges enter the church the trumpeters blow a loud fanfare.

3. When service is over, the judges drive to the courts, where a guard of javelin men attends them. Then the assizes or sittings of the judges begin. When the trials are over, the judges move on to the next large town and hold courts there. You will notice that wherever they go the judges are treated with the greatest possible respect, because they come to do the king's work, and because they stand for justice, without which there could be no peace, or security, or happiness for anybody in the land.

4. Perhaps you will be surprised to know that this system of sending judges from one place to another throughout the kingdom is more than eight hundred years old. It was begun by Henry the First, and has gone on continuously

since the time of Henry the Second, the king who followed Stephen on the throne. Henry the Second was a great reformer. You remember how he tried to reform the Church, but was opposed by Thomas Becket.

5. The dispute between the king and Becket was chiefly concerned with a legal matter. Before Henry's time, clergymen who committed crimes were punished only in a bishops' court, and the severest sentence that could be passed upon them was to turn them out of the Church. This was a very light punishment indeed for such grave crimes as murder and robbery. Henry tried to do away with the bad custom, but the Church was too strong for him. After Becket's murder, Henry dared not propose to take away any of the Church's privileges. He was, however, successful in bringing about other legal reforms.

6. In olden days the king was supposed to be the chief judge of the kingdom. Our early kings used to travel about the country and hold courts, at which any man who complained that he could not get justice in the local courts might have his case adjudged. When the kings gave up this practice, judges were sent instead. In the terribly disturbed reign of Stephen this plan fell through. Henry the Second, however, revived it. He divided the country into six "circuits," and sent judges to hold courts in them so many times a year. These six circuits still remain, and to them a seventh has been added—North and South Wales.

7. Now let us go inside the court. You see the judge sitting at a desk on a raised platform beneath a canopy. On his right sits the sheriff, and next to him is the chaplain. On his left sit a body of twelve men, who are called

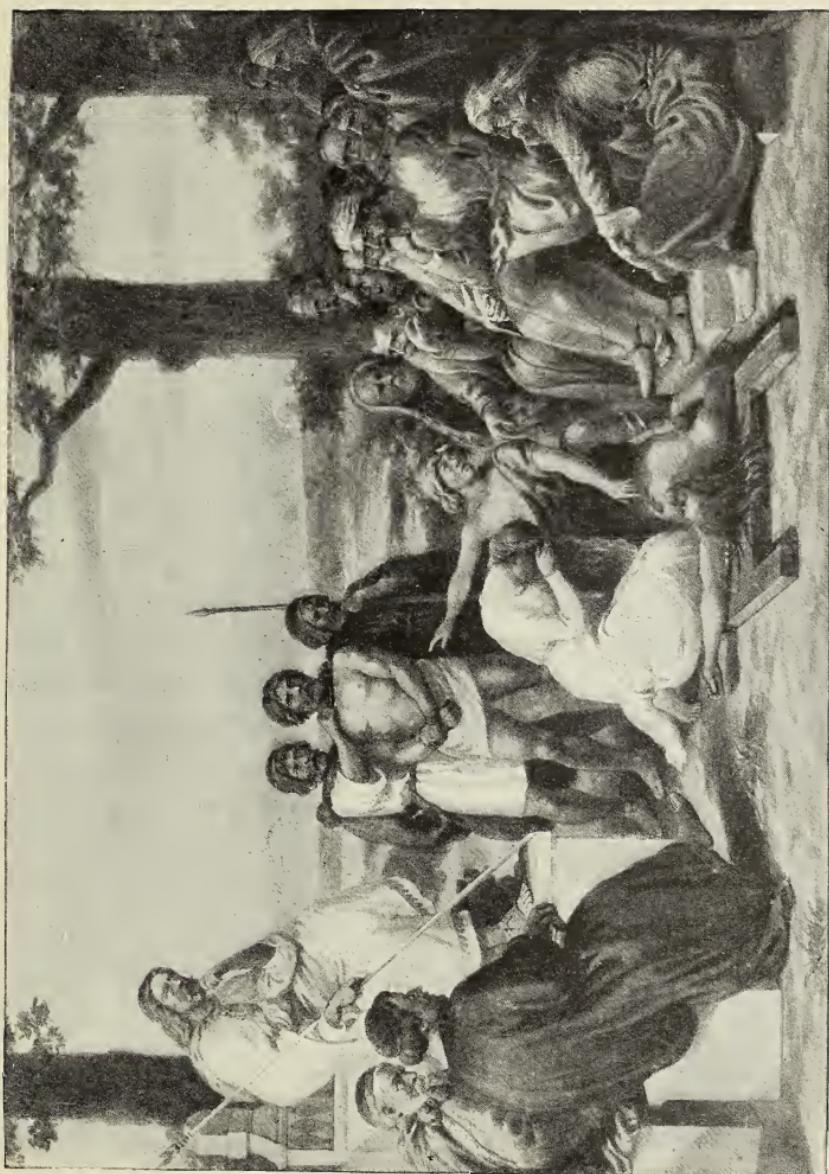
the jury, and these men have sworn on oath "to well and truly try" the cases brought before them. In front of the judge and to his right is the witness-box ; and below him is a table, at which sit the clerks of the court, wearing gowns and wigs.

8. Facing the judge there is a row of desks, in which sit the barristers—that is, the highest class of lawyers. They also wear wigs and gowns. Behind them is the dock, in which the prisoner is placed ; and behind the dock are seats for those members of the public who wish to be present at the trial.

9. A prisoner is brought into the dock by the jailers. The clerk of the court reads out the accusation against the prisoner, and then a barrister rises and gives the judge and jury a brief account of the crime which the prisoner is said to have committed. We will call this barrister the counsel for the crown or the prosecution.

10. When he has finished speaking, he calls his witnesses one by one. A man comes into the witness-box, and takes an oath on a copy of the New Testament, or swears with uplifted hand, that he will tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Then the barrister begins to ask him questions, and the answers to the questions usually bear out the account which he has given of the crime. The judge takes notes of what the witness says.

11. When the barrister has asked a witness all his questions another barrister rises. He has been engaged to defend the prisoner, so we will call him the counsel for the defence. He, too, asks the witness a number of questions. He tries to show that the witness has made a mistake, or is not quite



FIRST TRIAL BY JURY.  
(From the cartoon by C. W. Cope, R.A.)

sure of what he saw, or that what he said in answer to one question does not agree with what he said in answer to another, and so on. His business is to test the truth of what the witness says.

12. When all the witnesses against the prisoner have been examined and "cross-examined," the counsel for the defence calls witnesses in favour of the prisoner. These, too, are examined and cross-examined; and all the while the judge takes notes. The prisoner himself may give evidence if he wishes to do so. When all the witnesses have been heard, the prisoner's counsel makes a speech showing that the prisoner is innocent, or that there is some doubt about the case, or that he ought to be treated mercifully.

13. Then the counsel for the crown makes another speech, drawing conclusions from the evidence which has been submitted, and showing that the prisoner ought to be found guilty. When he has finished speaking, the judge turns to the jury and "sums up." He points out to them the strong points and the weak points of the case in a very clear way, and explains to them the law on the subject. When he has done, he says, "You may now retire to consider your verdict."

14. The jurymen then leave the court and go into an adjoining room, where no one is allowed to come near them. There they discuss the case, and make up their minds whether the prisoner is guilty or innocent. When they have *all* agreed to a verdict, they come back into court. The clerk asks the foreman of the jury, "Do you find the prisoner guilty or not guilty?"

15. If the verdict is "not guilty," the prisoner is at

once set free. If the verdict is “guilty,” the judge asks the prisoner whether he has anything to say why sentence should not be pronounced. Sometimes the prisoner speaks ; sometimes he does not. Then the judge gives sentence, and the sheriff’s duty is to see that the sentence is properly carried out.

16. This is the way a trial by jury is carried on in English and Irish courts to-day. In Scotland it is not conducted in quite the same way. The chief points of difference between the English and Scottish practice in a trial of this kind are—(1) the witnesses do not swear an oath on a copy of the New Testament, but hold up the right hand and make a solemn statement ; (2) in criminal cases there are fifteen jurymen, and not twelve as in England, and the verdict is given by a majority ; and (3) a third verdict, that of “not proven,” may be brought in if the jury think there is not sufficient evidence to convict the prisoner.

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## 16. TRIAL BY JURY.

1. Now, when you were in court, I am sure you must have noticed one very important thing. It was not the judge who said whether the prisoner was guilty or not guilty ; it was the jury. The “twelve good men and true” heard all that was said for and against the prisoner, and they decided his case.

2. These jurymen were twelve ordinary householders of the town. They were chosen from the list of voters ; and when they were summoned to the court they were

bound to come, under a penalty of fine or imprisonment. If the prisoner thought that any of the jurymen would not deal justly with him, he could have had them sent away and others put in their places.

3. Now you see that the prisoner was tried, not by king or baron or judge, but by twelve of his fellow-countrymen. They all had to agree upon their verdict, and only when they said the terrible word "guilty" was the prisoner sentenced by the judge. This is called "trial by jury." Britons are very proud of this system; they call it the "bulwark" of their liberties.

4. To find the beginnings of trial by jury, we must go back to the days of Henry the Second. The germ from which it grew was in existence before his time, but he was the first to establish it in such a way that it could grow into its modern form. In order to show you clearly what a great change Henry the Second brought about, let me give you an idea of a trial as it was conducted for more than a hundred years after the Norman Conquest.

5. Let us suppose the free landowners of the district have been called together to deal with the case of some man who is said to have committed a crime. They hear what is said for and against him, but they do not judge him. The judgment is left to Almighty God. The members of the court simply say how the man's guilt or innocence must be proved. They may, for example, say that the man who is charged with the crime must bring so many witnesses of a certain kind to swear solemnly that he is innocent. In those days men thought that he who swore falsely would suffer some swift and terrible punish-

ment : he would be struck dead, or turned into a dwarf, or would suffer some other horrible fate.

6. If the accused man brought the right number and the right kind of witnesses to swear for him, he was allowed to go free. Usually, however, after the Norman Conquest, the court thought that oaths were not sufficient. In such a case, it sent a prisoner to the "ordeal"—that is, he had to undergo the judgment of fire or water. In the case of the ordeal by water, the priest called upon the water to receive the innocent man and reject the guilty. Then the man was thrown into the water. If he sank, he was innocent ; if he floated, he was guilty. Sometimes the man was drowned by the time he had proved himself innocent.

7. If the ordeal was by fire, the prisoner was ordered to take up a piece of red-hot iron, one pound in weight, and carry it three paces. His hand was then bound up and sealed. Three days later the seal was broken, and the hand was examined by the priest. If the wound had healed sufficiently, the prisoner was innocent ; if it showed a blister "as large as half a walnut," he was guilty. You can easily see how uncertain this kind of judgment was, and how it lent itself to fraud on the part of the priests and others who conducted the trials.

8. The Normans brought with them another kind of ordeal, the ordeal by combat—that is, an appeal to the God of battles. The accuser and the accused, if they were not maimed, or too young or too old, had to fight with each other, and the one who was victor was considered to have God on his side. The fight was carried out with special

arms made of wood and horn, and the combat might continue from dawn to twilight.

9. The object of each party was not to kill his adversary but to make him cry “Craven,” in which case he was adjudged guilty, and was forthwith hanged or mutilated or fined according to the character of his crime. Thus you see that the stronger and more skilful man had a good chance of getting judgment in his favour, even though he were guilty of the crime laid to his charge.

10. Now the Norman kings always considered that they could, if they wished, have disputes as to *land* settled without trial by ordeal. They sometimes gave orders to their officers to call together the men of the neighbourhood, and make them swear an oath to say truly to whom the land in dispute belonged. The ownership of the land was then decided according to the oaths of these men.

11. The great change which Henry the Second brought about was to give all his subjects the right to have their disputes settled in this way, if they so wished. In course of time this “*inquest*,” as it was called, took the place of the old plan, not only with regard to land, but also with regard to murder and robbery and other crimes.

12. Now notice that the neighbours who were called together were rather witnesses than judges. They decided the case on their own knowledge, and in this respect they were quite different from the jurymen of to-day, who are judges and not witnesses. Our jurymen are supposed to know nothing about the case until they come into the court, and they are required to “give their verdict” simply and solely on what they hear from the witnesses. Frequently they are

warned to take no notice of what they have read in the newspapers about the case.

13. You can easily see that the jury of King Henry's day might do great injustice to a man brought before them. They must often have decided their cases by guess-work and by the tittle-tattle of the countryside. No doubt many a man was hanged, not because any one had seen him commit a crime, but because he had a bad name amongst his neighbours, and was just the kind of man they would expect to do such a deed. The old proverb, "Give a dog a bad name, and hang him," must have applied to many men also.

14. In course of time the judges began to insist that the jurymen must listen to what the witnesses said, and give their verdict, not of their own knowledge, but according to the evidence. Many generations, however, went by before the rule was laid down that "hearsay is no evidence," and trial by jury took its modern form.

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## 17. THE GREAT CHARTER.

1. To-day we will in imagination take a walk by the side of the river Thames. We will set out from the quaint old town of Staines, which takes its name from the "London Stone," set up in the year 1280 to mark the boundary of Middlesex. We cross the bridge, and follow the river up-stream for about a mile until we come to a meadow now used as Egham racecourse. Opposite to it is a small island. Perhaps you will say, "I see nothing remarkable about this

meadow and island." Quite true, but nowhere in England can we find a place of greater historical importance.

2. The meadow is called Runnymede, and the island opposite to it is known as Magna Charta Island. Magna Charta, or Carta, means the "Great Charter;" and a charter is a legal document setting forth the rights and privileges



MAGNA CHARTA ISLAND.

of a people or of a corporation—that is, of a body of men who in law are treated as if they were one person. Here, on this meadow, the Great Charter, which has been called the "keystone of English liberty," was signed by King John in the year 1215. John, you will remember, was the seventh of our Norman kings. He succeeded that great warrior and Crusader, Richard the First.



**King John Signing Magna Charta.**

*(From the fresco by Ernest Normand in the Royal Exchange, London.)*

3. John was the youngest and best beloved son of Henry the Second. He was a bad boy and a bad man, and when he became king he was the worst monarch who ever sat on the English throne. You already know that he murdered his nephew Arthur. There was no wickedness too bad for him. He was cruel, false, greedy, untruthful, and vile ; yet out of his wickedness came the beginning of the liberties in which we rejoice to-day.

4. John had not been long on the throne before he lost nearly all the wide possessions in France over which Henry the Second had ruled. This was a great blessing to England. Formerly the Norman knights spent half their time abroad, and looked upon Normandy as their real home. When Normandy was lost, they were compelled to give all their attention to England. As time went on they became Englishmen, and were proud of the country which they had formerly despised. The great-grandsons of the men who fought on opposite sides at Hastings became friends and brothers, and thus grew up the “new English race.”

5. John had not been long on the throne before he began to quarrel with the Church. The Pope at that time was Innocent the Third, a bold, arrogant man, who meant to make the Church supreme in every Christian land. Formerly, when an archbishop was to be chosen, the king named the man for the post, and the Pope and the clergy accepted him. In 1205, when the Archbishop of Canterbury died, the clergy chose a new archbishop for themselves without asking the king’s permission. This made John very angry indeed.

6. He forced the clergy to choose a favourite of his own ; but the Pope would have neither the king's favourite nor the man chosen by the clergy. He himself chose as archbishop a scholar named Stephen Langton, who was a wise and pious Englishman. No better choice could have been made. John, however, refused to let Langton come to England, and soon a fierce quarrel began between the king and the Pope. Innocent was just as masterful a man as John, and the quarrel became a trial of strength between them.

7. The Pope laid an interdict on the realm—that is, he cut off England from the Church altogether. The churches and churchyards were closed ; the church bells never rang, and the dead were buried in fields and by the roadside. The clergy stood by the Pope, but still John would not yield. He seized the estates of the bishops, and punished the clergy whenever he could.

8. At last the Pope deposed the king, and gave his kingdom to Philip of France, who at once began to prepare a fleet and an army to invade England. The English barons and people were quite ready to fight the French king, but King John was now thoroughly frightened. He begged forgiveness of the Pope ; he knelt before the Pope's messenger, and gave up his kingdom to him. Then he received it back as the vassal of the Pope. The anger of the English people at this base act knew no bounds. "He has become the Pope's man," they said ; "he is no longer a king, but a slave." Still more angry did they become when John took an army to France and was hopelessly beaten.

**Houses of Parliament.**  
Parliament was first called to Westminster by Edward the First, and there it has continued to sit till the present time. The Houses of Parliament were burned down in October 1834, and of the ancient buildings Westminster Hall and the crypt of St. Stephen's alone were saved. The present Houses were erected from the designs of Sir Charles Barry, and were seventeen years in building (1840-57).



9. Many of the barons had refused to follow the king to France, and on his return he began to punish them. This was the last straw that broke down their patience. The barons now banded together under Stephen Langton, the Archbishop of Canterbury, who showed them the Charter which Henry the First had given to the people one hundred years before. The barons bound themselves to make the king put his seal to a similar charter, even if they had to fight him to do so. They girded on their armour, and under Robert Fitzwalter, "the marshal of the army of God and the holy Church," marched to London, where the citizens threw open the gates to receive them. All the king's knights but seven left him, and then he saw that he must give way.

10. Now look at the picture on page 85. It represents the great scene that took place on Magna Charta Island on June 15, 1215. You see in the background a great tent, with banners waving above it. In front of the tent is a throne, with the lions of England embroidered on it. Sitting on the throne is King John, with the sword of state in his hand. There is a scowl on his face, but he is trying hard not to show his anger. When he gets home to-night he will fling himself on the ground, gnash his teeth, and in a passion of rage curse the Charter which he has been forced to sign.

11. Around the king on all sides are barons in full armour. Look at their faces. They are stern and strong. The barons have suffered much from the king ; now they are determined that he shall make the law and keep it. A monk is reading the Charter, but the king is not listening. He is planning

**N**ullus lib[er] homo capiatur ne[m] imp[ri]sonetur aut exiliatur aut vellet

*No free man shall be taken, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed,*

**aut exulatum aut aliquo modo destruatur n[on] s[up] er e[m]m ib[us] n[on] s[up]**

*or banished, or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him nor upon*

**cum m[al]itiam n[on] p[ro] legale iudicium p[ro]rum suorum ut p[ro] legem t[er]re**

*him send, except by the legal judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.*

**N**ulli vendemus. n[on] negabim[us] aut dilgem[us] rectum aut iusticiam

*To no one will we sell, to no one will we deny or delay, right or justice.*

SECTIONS 39 AND 40 OF MAGNA CHARTA.

revenge on the barons. By the king's side is the Pope's legate, to whom John has surrendered his kingdom. You see from the look on his face that he hates the Charter, and thinks John ought not to be forced to sign it. John, however, cannot help himself. When the reading is finished he says, "Let it be sealed." Then the Charter is placed on the table in front of him, the wax is melted and placed on the parchment, the seal is screwed down, and Magna Charta becomes for all time the LAW.

12. Now what is the meaning of this Charter which has just been sealed? It is really a treaty of peace between the king and his people. "We will retain you as king," they say, "only on condition that you will swear to keep the law as it is written down on this parchment." Now, from what source did they get this law? It was not entirely a new thing, for it included the old rights and the old liberties of the people collected together and put into writing. The

Charter of Henry the First which Langton had shown the barons was the ground-work of part of the new Charter. But Henry's Charter itself was not new ; it was based on the laws of Edward the Confessor, which, in turn, were based on still older laws.

13. All the freemen of the land had banded together to force the king to sign the Charter, and the rights of all classes of the people are laid down in it. Much of the Charter deals with the rights of the barons and the clergy, but one-third of it contains promises and guarantees for the people in general. The barons, unlike those of some foreign countries, were not selfish when they gained the upper hand of the king. It is true that they took good care of themselves, but they did not forget the welfare of the nation at large.

14. Ever since the days of King John, the Great Charter has been part of the written law of our land. Whenever kings in after times did unlawful and tyrannical things, the people forced them to swear to keep the Great Charter. It has been signed nearly forty times.

15. I cannot now tell you all the rights which were guaranteed to the English people by this Charter. The three chief things to remember are that—(1) The people could only be taxed with the consent of the king's council ; (2) there must be justice for all, and justice must not be sold, refused, or delayed ; (3) no freeman could be taken, imprisoned, or in any way hurt, unless he be tried by his peers or equals according to the law. Somewhat changed in form, these principles are still the foundation stones of our law.

## 18. THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

1. To-day we will pay a visit to the Houses of Parliament. We must make our way to that part of London known as Westminster. In early days it was a marshy island in the Thames, and on it Edward the Confessor built a palace and a great church. Where the palace stood, the Houses of Parliament now stand ; where the church was built, the abbey of Westminster may now be seen.

2. We cross New Palace Yard, and enter a door guarded by a policeman. We are now in Westminster Hall, and we gaze at its ancient walls and the blackened beams of its great oak roof with much interest. We may well do so, for this hall has been the scene of some of the greatest events in the story of our land. It was built by William Rufus between the years 1097 and 1099, and was rebuilt by Richard the Second some three hundred years later.

3. Some of our earliest Parliaments met in it, and it was the seat of the chief law courts of the country down to the year 1880, when the new Courts in the Strand were opened. A king and several ministers of state have received their death sentences in this hall. If its ancient walls could speak, they would tell us more of English history than even the most learned men know.

4. We now pass on to St. Stephen's Hall, with its vaulted roof, rich carving, and many statues. From this place we are taken up a stone staircase, up and up, until we come to what is called the Strangers' Gallery. From this gallery we look down upon the House of Commons. "Not much to see," perhaps you say. Certainly the House itself is a

small and very plain hall, yet it is by far the most important place in the land.

5. Looking down from the gallery we see a broad gangway. At one end of it there is a kind of throne with a table in front of it. On the throne sits a figure in a flowing silk gown and a great white wig. This is the Speaker or Chairman of the House. On the table in front of him you see a gold staff with a heavy head shaped like a crown. This is the mace. It is carried before the Speaker, and it rests upon the table all the time that he occupies the chair. When he leaves the chair, and the chairman of committees takes his place, the mace is put on supports under the ledge of the table.

6. On each side of the gangway there is an array of benches covered with green leather. On the Speaker's right hand sit those members of Parliament who support the Government ; on his left hand sit those who oppose it. The front benches on either side are reserved for the leaders of the two great parties in the House. On the Treasury Bench, which is the front bench on the right hand of the Speaker, you see members of the Government.

7. There are six hundred and seventy members of Parliament altogether, but there is not room for anything like that number to sit down. When great events are taking place many members have to stand. In a gallery right opposite to you are the reporters, busy taking down the speeches which are being delivered. Above the Reporters' Gallery is the Ladies' Gallery, which is shut in by a grille or grating.

8. I am afraid that you will soon be tired of sitting in the gallery. You see the members rise one after another,

and hear them make long, sometimes very long, speeches. Now I am sure that you can understand the meaning of the word *Parliament*. It is an old French word, and it means a place for speaking.

9. Nobody seems to pay much attention to the majority of the speakers, but now and then one of the leaders sitting on the front benches has something to say. Then those behind him cry “Hear, hear,” to express their approval of what he says, while the members on the other side shout “No, no,” or in other ways show that they disagree with him. Then, perhaps, the members all troop out into the lobbies to give their vote on the question which they have been debating.

10. Now what is the work that the members of the House of Commons do day by day? They help to make the laws of the land, or to amend them when necessary; they decide what money we shall pay to the king’s officers to keep up the government of the country; they ventilate our grievances; they keep a close watch over the acts of the Government; and they are zealous to preserve our liberties.

11. Together with the House of Lords, they are the greatest power in the land—higher even than the king. These two Houses make the laws, and when the king signs them they are put in force. Not a single farthing of money may be taken from the people without the consent of the House of Commons. It holds the purse-strings of the nation, and no one may loosen them unless the majority of the members agree.

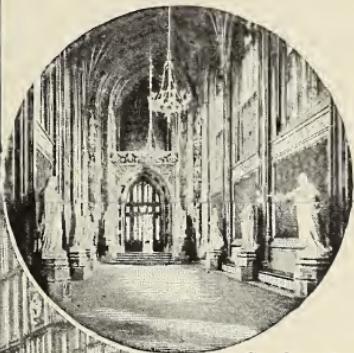
12. Perhaps you ask, “Who gives the members of the



The Mace—the symbol of the dignity and privileges of the House of Commons.



The House of Commons. On the right of the Speaker's Chair are the Government Benches; to the left are the Opposition Benches. Above the Speaker's Chair is the Press Gallery; and above that the Grille, behind which ladies sit.



St. Stephen's Hall, occupying the site of the old St. Stephen's Chapel.

—  
The House of Lords, sometimes known as The Gilded Chamber.



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

House of Commons the right to go to Parliament and to do these things?" The answer is very simple. The British people choose their members at what is called a parliamentary election. Most of the men-householders and many of the lodgers in this country have the right to choose the member of Parliament who is to speak for them. When your father gives his vote at election times, he is really helping to rule his country ; he is choosing the man who is to do his work for him. Nearly every grown-up Briton is thus a partner in the work of government.

13. You must not imagine that this has always been so. In earlier days the government was in the hands of kings and nobles, who made what laws they pleased, and took from the people what money they wanted. The people are now all-powerful, but in those days they were of no account at all. Their rights have been won for them by the long and bitter struggles of their forefathers. A fierce war was waged and a king lost his head before the power was taken from the few and given to the many. In the next lesson I shall tell you something about the beginnings of Parliament.

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## 19. THE BEGINNINGS OF PARLIAMENT.

1. For the beginnings of Parliament we must go back to the days of Henry the Third, the son of wicked King John. Henry the Third was a boy of nine when his father died. There was no crown with which to crown him; it had been lost with much of John's baggage in the quicksands of the Wash. A plain circlet of gold was placed on the lad's

head, and he was made king of a kingdom full of strife and misery.

2. Happily there were two strong barons who ruled in the name of the king, and they soon brought about peace to the land. One of these was William the Marshal, and the other was Hubert de Burgh, of whom you read in Book III. Under these men Prince Lewis of France, who had been offered the crown by the barons, and had landed with an army in order to seize it, was defeated both by land and sea, and was forced to retire to France.

3. Henry began to rule in his own name in the year 1227. He soon showed himself jealous of Hubert de Burgh, who had become regent on the death of the Earl-Marshal, and had proved a tower of strength to the kingdom. Hubert was driven from his office, and then Henry gave himself up to bad advisers. Smooth-tongued, flattering foreigners were more to his liking than blunt, honest Englishmen. So he brought over many Frenchmen, and lavished money, earldoms, and bishoprics upon them.

4. Henry's love of foreign favourites, and the very heavy burdens which he laid upon England at the demand of the Pope, at last roused the barons. They met together, and told the young king that his foreign favourites were eating up the land like a flight of locusts. They also said that he could not be allowed to rule any longer without the aid and counsel of his barons.

5. Now the leader of the barons was the best and bravest man of his time. He was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Strange to say, he too was a foreigner, and had been brought over from France as one of the king's

favourites. He had married the king's sister, and had become to all intents and purposes an Englishman. He was a truly great man, strong and bold, pious, wise, and honourable. After he died, the people worshipped him as a saint. They called him St. Simon the Righteous, and believed that miracles were wrought at his shrine.

6. With the barons at his back, Simon forced the king to swear that he would keep the law as laid down in Magna Charta. This Henry did time after time, but he did not keep his promises. He once swore to keep faith as "a man, a Christian, a knight, a crowned and anointed king ;" but he broke this oath just as lightly as he had broken the rest. Soon the barons saw that they could place no reliance on his word, and that they would have to use force to make him observe his promises.

7. They met in full armour at Oxford in the year 1258, and there the king had to agree to their terms. A special Council of fifteen bishops and barons was appointed to rule the land in the name of the king. In this way the government of the land was taken altogether out of the hands of the king and given to a sort of committee.

8. This went on for four years ; but there was trouble all the time, for the barons soon became jealous of each other. Many of them went over to the king, who had been freed from his oath by the Pope. At length, in 1264, he got together an army, and a battle was fought at Lewes ; the king's men were overthrown, and he himself was taken prisoner. Then Earl Simon became the real ruler of England.

9. In the next year Earl Simon called together a Parlia-

ment in the king's name. This Parliament is very famous, because it was the beginning of Parliament as we know it to-day. Up to this time the king's Council was the only body which came together to help in ruling the country. It was composed of archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, and smaller landholders or squires, and they alone had the right to come to the Council and give advice to the king.

10. Now in those days it was very difficult to get from one part of the country to another. We can go from London to Edinburgh in about eight hours, but six hundred years ago a man would take weeks to accomplish the journey. The roads were few and bad, there were all sorts of dangers by the way, and the cost was very great. For this and other reasons the country squires never used their right of coming to the king's Council as a body.

11. But what of the common people? They had no part or lot in the Great Council at all. Only those who owned land were allowed to have a voice in governing the country. Earl Simon, however, wished all classes to take part in Parliament; so he called together not only nobles, bishops, abbots, and squires, but also *two townsmen to be chosen by each town*. Because Simon's Parliament had in it representatives of all classes of freemen in the land, it is often called the first English Parliament. It met in the year 1265.

12. The archbishops, bishops, abbots, great nobles, squires, and townsmen all sat in one chamber. Not until the early years of Edward the Third's reign was Parliament divided into the two Houses—the House of Lords and the House of

Commons as we have them to-day. In the House of Lords sit nobles, who speak only for themselves ; in the

House of Commons sit the men who speak for the people of the shires and the towns.



EARL SIMON

13. Simon's Parliament was not remarkable for anything that it did, but because, for the first time, it brought representatives of the towns to the Great Council of the nation, and united lords, county members, and borough members into one Parliament. All classes in the nation were represented in this Parliament, and all the representatives sat in one chamber.

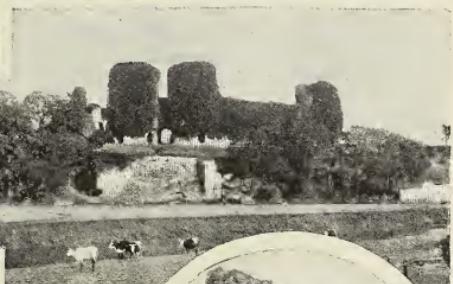
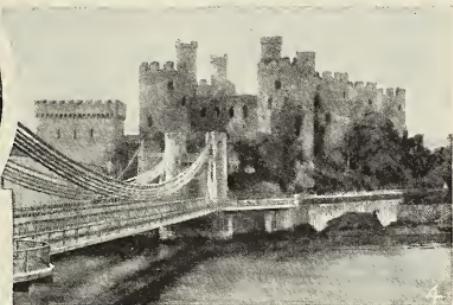
After Simon's death, which took place at the battle of Evesham, in 1265, no Parliament on this model was called

for thirty years. In the year 1295, however, Edward the First brought together a Parliament which historians consider to be the real ancestor of the Parliament of to-day.



## 20. THE STORY OF WALES.—I.

1. Come with me to the seaside town of Rhyl, on the Flintshire coast of North Wales. It is neither a picturesque nor an ancient town, but it possesses magnificent sands, on which crowds of happy holiday-makers disport themselves every summer. You and I, however, have not come to



**SOME FAMOUS WELSH CASTLES.**

1. Pembroke. 2. Carnarvon. 3. Harlech. 4. Conway. 5. Caerphilly. 6. Rhuddlan.  
7. Kidwelly. 8. Denbigh: the keep.

Rhyl to bathe, to ride donkeys, or to build sand-castles. We have come to make it the starting-point for a little historical excursion up the beautiful Vale of Clwyd, which is shut in on the east, south, and west by lofty peaked mountains.

2. We leave Rhyl by the bridge which crosses the railway at the east end of the station, and keep straight on over Morfa Rhuddlan—"the Marsh of Rhuddlan"—for two and a half miles. Then we turn sharp to the right and soon reach the village. Presently we halt before the end wall of a row of cottages and see a stone with the following inscription : *"This fragment is the remains of the building where King Edward the First held his Parliament, A.D. 1283, in which was passed the Statute of Rhuddlan, securing to the Principality of Wales its judicial rights and independence."*

3. Close by we see the ruins of the massive castle of Rhuddlan, with its ivied walls seventeen feet thick, and its great towers at each corner and at the entrance gates. This great Welsh stronghold was founded early in the tenth century. It was captured by Edward the First, who rebuilt it in the year 1277. Now here we are face to face with historic remains which speak forcibly to us of the days when Wales was just conquered by the English king who first made a serious attempt to unite all parts of Britain under one ruler. No place is more suitable in which to recall the story of "gallant little Wales."

4. The people of Wales, as you already know, are the descendants of the natives or Celts whom the Romans found inhabiting the whole island of Britain when they came to conquer it. These Celts consisted of many tribes, but they



WHERE THE STATUTE OF RHUDDLAN WAS PASSED.

all belonged to two great branches—the Cymry in the southern part of Britain, and the Gaels in the Highlands of Scotland and in Ireland. To this day the Celts retain their old language. It is still spoken in Wales, in Ireland, and in the Highlands of Scotland. To this day the dalesmen of Cumberland count their sheep in Welsh.

5. If you study a map of Wales, you will see that its mountains not only form a barricade against England, but also prevent easy communication between the different parts of the country. Wales can be entered from England only by three valleys—namely, along the Dee, the Severn, and the Wye. To get from North to South Wales is equally difficult. Suppose, for example, that you wish to travel by railway from Carmarthen, in South Wales, to

Carnarvon, in North Wales. Two routes, and two routes only, are open to you. You may travel to the English border, proceed northward to Chester, and then skirt the coast of North Wales until you reach your destination. Or you may travel to the shores of Cardigan Bay at Aberystwith, and then follow the coastline nearly all the way to Carnarvon.

6. If the routes are so roundabout in our time, what must they have been in the days before highroads and railways? Now I think you can understand how the mountains kept out the English who tried to conquer the land, and how they also prevented the Welsh from uniting into one strong nation.

7. Up to the close of the sixth century the British remained masters of all the western part of the island from the Clyde to Exeter. In the year 577 A.D. the English gained a great victory at Deorham in Gloucestershire, and won for themselves the great plain of the Severn. They thus thrust a wedge between the Britons south of the Bristol Channel and those north of that estuary.

8. Thirty-six years later a Northumbrian king fought a host of Welsh princes beneath the walls of the old Roman city of Chester. The English were victorious, and they occupied the plain from which the walls and towers of the city arose. In this way they thrust a wedge between the Britons south of the Dee and the Britons north of it.

9. Wales was thus cut off from Strathclyde on the north and from West Wales or Cornwall on the south. It was surrounded on the land side by a fierce people who spoke a strange language and worshipped strange gods, for the

English were heathen and the Welsh were Christian. It was also open to attack from the sea. The Danes made frequent descents, and at length settled on the south coast, where they discovered and named Milford and other havens, and founded the town of Tenby. Only by constant fighting could the swarming enemy be kept at bay.

10. From the year 844 to 877 a king named Rhodri or Roderick Mawr—that is, “the Great”—drove back the Danes and played the part of King Alfred in Wales. Rhodri fell in battle against the English in 877, and the land was in a sad condition until the great King Llywelyn ap Seisyll arose. The princes acknowledged him as over-lord, and he became chief king of all Wales. He cleared the land of Dane and English, and at his death in 1027 Wales was a prosperous and happy country.

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## 21. THE STORY OF WALES.—II.

1. When Llywelyn died, the princes said that they would not obey another over-king, and a time of great bloodshed and misery followed. Then Griffith, the son of Llywelyn, took up his father’s work. He beat the English, he crushed those princes who opposed the unity of Wales, and he defeated the sea-rovers. Just at this time Earl Harold, afterwards King of England, invaded Wales. Owing to his good generalship and to the treachery of the Welsh princes who were jealous of Griffith, Harold was successful. Griffith, who had been “the head and shield of the Britons,” was slain by traitors amongst his own men.

2. In January 1070, when William the Conqueror had established himself in England, he attempted the invasion of Wales. While the snow lay thick on the mountains he appeared at Chester, but was unable to advance any further. He turned back, but he placed on the borders a number of barons, whose duty it was to conquer the country.

3. Hugh the Wolf, from whom the present Duke of Westminster is descended, was placed at Chester ; Robert, his nephew, was made Lord of Clwyd, and went to and fro from his castle at Rhuddlan butchering the Welsh without mercy. Norman barons were also placed at Shrewsbury, Hereford, and other places. Meanwhile, the Welsh chiefs were fighting amongst themselves. In 1081 the Conqueror again took the field, seized Cardiff, and built its castle. Wales looked as though it would soon be entirely conquered by the Normans.

4. In this dark hour two famous princes arose to lead the Welsh against the invader. They were Griffith ap Conon, Prince of North Wales, and Griffith ap Rees, his son, Prince of South Wales. Rees was an abler and more powerful man than his father, and he won a memorable victory at Cardigan in 1136 against the strongest army which the Normans could put into the field.

5. When Henry the Second came to the throne, he found two strong Welsh princes, Owen Gwynedd in North Wales and the Lord Rees in South Wales. These men were about to become allies, and thus bring about the union of Wales. To prevent this, Henry invaded the country three times with great armies ; but the storms and the

mountains fought against him, and he was obliged to leave Wales unconquered.

6. Owen Gwynedd died in 1170, and once more the chiefs quarrelled and refused to unite. Twenty-four years later, however, we find Llywelyn the Great, the grandson of Owen Gwynedd, becoming powerful. His reign was in many respects the most important in Welsh history. He encouraged the bard, the monk, and the friar, and he laboured hard for peace and unity.

7. The Wales over which Llywelyn ruled consisted of Anglesey and the country to the west of the Snowdon, Berwyn, and Plinlimmon ranges. He allied himself with the barons who were opposing King John, and his rights are specially preserved in *Magna Charta*. Llywelyn deserved his title "The Great," for he was the best of all the native rulers of Wales.

8. We are now rapidly drawing near to the last scene in the story of Wales as an independent nation. The "last Llywelyn" was the grandson of Llywelyn the Great. At first he ruled jointly with his brothers, Owen and David, but by 1255 he was sole ruler of all Wales. He strove hard to extend his sway, and in 1267 he ruled the land from Snowdon to the Dee, and as far south as the Towy and the Brecknockshire Beacons—that is, he was master of nearly all modern Wales, with the exception of the seaboard and the shores of the Bristol Channel.

9. When the barons under Simon de Montfort took up arms against Henry the Third, Llywelyn joined them. Many of the Welsh barons, however, joined the king and invaded Llywelyn's dominions, which soon shrank to their

old limits. Edward the First became King of England in 1272, and then began a long struggle which ended in the downfall of Wales. He first ordered Llywelyn to do homage for his country, and this command Llywelyn refused to obey.

10. In 1282 Edward's great army began to close round the vast mountain mass of Snowdon in which Llywelyn lay. Winter was coming on, and Edward was thinking of retiring and waiting until the next year, when news arrived that Llywelyn was slain. He had left Snowdon and gone to South Wales in order to encourage the chiefs in their resistance to Edward. In a slight skirmish near Builth a soldier slew him, not knowing who he was. When the men of Snowdon learned that their prince had fallen they lost heart. Their cause was now hopeless, and in a few months the whole of Wales was at Edward's feet.

11. In 1284 Edward called the chiefs together at Rhuddlan and passed the Statute of Wales, which, as the inscription on the wall tells us, secured to the principality "its judicial rights and independence." Llywelyn's realm was then divided into six shires—Carnarvon, Anglesey, Merioneth, Flint, Cardigan, and Carmarthen—and was governed in the same way as the English counties. Much, however, of the old Welsh law remained.

12. The king's sheriffs took the place of the Welsh chieftains, and Edward's eldest son, afterwards Edward the Second, was created Prince of Wales. From that day to this the title Prince of Wales has been conferred by the King of England on his eldest son. The present Prince of Wales has another claim on the loyalty of the Welsh people—he is actually descended from a daughter of Llywelyn the Great.

## 22. THE CORONATION STONE.

1. Across the road from the Houses of Parliament is the grand old cathedral which Edward the Confessor erected on the site of a still older church more than eight centuries ago. Every English king from Edward the Confessor to George the Fifth has been crowned within its walls, with the single exception of Edward the Fifth, who died uncrowned. Most of our English kings and queens from Edward the Confessor down to the time of George the Third have been buried in it, and it has become the last resting-place of those British statesmen, warriors, poets, artists, and men of letters whose names stand high on the roll of fame.

2. To pay a visit to Westminster Abbey is to pass in review the whole history of the British people. A great writer has said: "It seems as if the awful nature of the place presses down upon the soul, and hushes the beholder into noiseless reverence. We feel that we are surrounded by the congregated bones of the great men of past times who have filled the earth with their renown."

3. Let us pay a visit to the Abbey. We make our way to the Chapel of Edward the Confessor, which is behind the high altar. Here we find ourselves in the "burial-place of kings." You will remember seeing a picture of this chapel in Book III. On the north side of the chapel is the tomb of Edward the First, with this inscription in Latin, "*Here lies Edward, Hammer of the Scots. Keep faith.*" When his tomb was opened, in the year 1774, his nickname "Longshanks" was found to be quite appropriate, for the body was six feet two inches in length.

4. By the side of the stone screen at the other end of the chapel stand two coronation chairs. The one on the left is that which was made for Edward the First. Near to it you see his sword and shield. Look beneath the seat of the chair. You see a rough piece of sandstone fixed to the chair by iron clamps. It is the ancient stone on which the kings of the Scots sat at their coronation, and is called the *Lia Fail*, or Stone of Destiny. Edward the First brought it from Scone, the ancient capital of Scotland, in 1297, after his great campaign in that country.

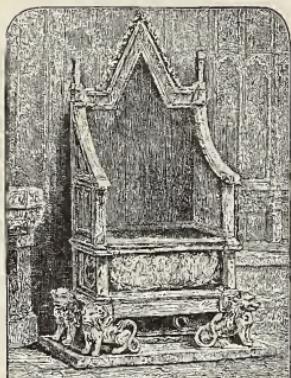
5. An old tradition says,—

“If Fates go right, where'er this stone is found  
The Scots shall monarchs of that realm be crowned.”

The prophecy has been fulfilled, for three hundred and six years after Edward placed the stone in Westminster Abbey a Scottish king was crowned King of England. All British sovereigns since that time have had Scottish blood in their veins.

6. Standing by the side of Edward's tomb, and looking upon the old coronation stone of the Scottish kings, we cannot help thinking of the great attempt which he made to conquer Scotland and unite it with England. Let us very briefly review the history of Scotland up to the time when it fell under the “hammer of the Scots.”

7. The history of Caledonia, as Scotland was called in



early times, begins with the invasion of Agricola. After conquering North Wales and what is now Yorkshire, this famous Roman governor of Britain carried his arms into Scotland, which was then a land of vast forests and sterile mountains. He overran the Lowlands, and in order to shut out the natives he built a chain of forts between the Forth and the Clyde.

8. Then he pushed on towards the Highlands, and somewhere in Perthshire defeated the Caledonian chief Galgacus with great slaughter in the year 84 A.D. He was not, however, able to subdue Caledonia, and in later times the Romans abandoned the attempt altogether. As you already know, they built a great stone wall eighty miles long across the moors from Newcastle to Carlisle. Beyond the Clyde and the Forth they did not pretend to rule, and the district between the two walls could scarcely be called Roman, though marked on the map as the province of Valentia.

9. At the close of the sixth century nearly the whole of Scotland to the north of the Firths of Forth and Clyde was in the hands of the Picts. They were divided into Northern Picts and Southern Picts—the latter occupying the country now known as the shires of Perth, Fife, Forfar, and Kincardine. Pictland was divided among a number of tribes, and, as in England, the king of one tribe was sometimes able to get the mastery over two or three others, and make himself the most powerful man in the country.

10. In the south-western part of the country, sometimes called Galloway, sometimes Strathclyde—that is, the valley of the Clyde—Cymric Britons, similar to those of Cornwall

and Wales, held sway. The English conquered the country up to the Firth of Forth, but were only able to settle in the lower lands lying towards the east.

11. The first great event in the history of Scotland is the invasion of a warlike people, who settled down in the land and gave their name to it. While the English were conquering Britain, bands of rovers were crossing the North Channel from Ireland, and were settling down in the islands and along the coast of what is now Argyllshire. These newcomers are known as the Scots. They set up a kingdom in the west, which gradually became the chief power in the country.

12. The second great event in the history of Scotland is the coming of Columba, an Irish monk, who, in the year 563 A.D., with twelve companions, crossed over from Ireland, and landing on the lonely little island of Iona, near the large island of Mull, built a little wooden church and a number of wattle huts. From this retreat Columba and his friends made missionary journeys to and fro, until they had converted the western part of Scotland. You learnt in Book III. that Aidan, one of Columba's followers, settled at Lindisfarne, or Holy Island, off the Northumbrian coast, and in much the same way taught the Christian faith to the people of Northern England.

13. The kingdom which the Scots set up was not at first called Scotland, but Dalriada. About the year 600 Scotland was divided into four parts. Three of them—Strathclyde, Dalriada, and Pictland—were Celtic; the fourth, which soon afterwards got the name of Lothian, was English.

14. Lothian, which consisted of the south-eastern part of the country, formed the northern division of the kingdom of Northumbria. Edwin, one of Northumbria's most famous kings, built a stronghold on a great volcanic rock near the Forth, and called it Edinburgh—which perhaps means Edwin's castle. From this point the Northumbrians conquered the low country towards the Clyde, and spread northward along the coast through Fife, and even beyond the Tay. About the year 670 the south-east of Scotland may be said to have been conquered by the English.

15. In 685 Egfrith, King of Northumbria, led a great army beyond the Forth, with the object of dealing a final blow to the Picts. At Nectan's Mere, in Forfarshire, the Pictish king, Brude, defeated and slew him with the greater part of his army. This is one of the most important battles in Scottish history. Had Egfrith won, there would probably have been no kingdom of Scotland at all. As it was, the Picts and Scots, and the other Celts of Cumbria and Strathclyde, became independent once more.



**23. THE STORY OF SCOTLAND.—I.**

1. From this time onward for many years the history of Scotland is very difficult to follow. We hear of wars between the Scots in Dalriada and the Celts of Strathclyde, and between the Picts and the Northumbrians. About 800 A.D. the terrible Norsemen began to harry the northern and eastern coasts. This new danger probably forced the Scots, the Picts, and the Celts to unite under one king for the purpose of resisting the invader.

2. How this union came about we do not know ; all that we can be sure of is that in 843 Kenneth MacAlpin, a prince of Dalriada, but connected also with the Pictish royal family, became king both of the Picts and the Scots. This was a great event, almost as important as Egbert's overlordship of England.

3. The name Pict soon died out, and the name Scot extended to all the people of Caledonia. Thus about the same time that we begin to speak about a kingdom of England, or, at least, of a king of the English, we can begin to speak of a Scottish kingdom too.

4. Twelve years before the battle of Hastings, Malcolm the Third, known as Canmore or Bighead, became King of Scotland. Much of his life had been spent at the court of Edward the Confessor. His father, King Duncan, had been slain, and he had been driven out of the country by a powerful noble named Macbeth, who had usurped the throne.

5. At length, in 1054, Edward gave Malcolm an army, with which he marched north and overcame Macbeth.

He was crowned at Scone in 1057, and soon after married Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, who was the real heir to the English throne, though he had been set aside in favour of Harold.

6. The people of Scotland at that time were much less civilized than their southern neighbours. The marriage of Malcolm with Margaret brought a pious, learned, and gentle lady into the northern land, and she did her utmost to refine the people and improve their condition. Malcolm himself was rough, rude, and half-savage, but the love which he had for his wife taught him to reverence whatever she loved. We are told that he would kiss the sacred books because the queen loved them, and have them bound in the finest bindings for her sake, even though he could not read a word of them. In a hundred different ways Margaret helped to tame this savage king and civilize his court.

7. Malcolm's reign was full of battle and tumult. Five times he crossed the Border with fire and sword, and twice an English king invaded Scotland. Though he struggled hard to maintain the independence of his country, he was forced to acknowledge both William the Conqueror and William Rufus as overlords of Scotland. In the year 1093 Rufus insulted the Scottish king, who determined to wipe out the insult in blood. Hastening to Scotland, he mustered an army and made a raid into England. By treachery he and his eldest son were cut off from the main body and slain. Malcolm's death was a great blow to Scotland.

8. Three sons of Malcolm Canmore became king one after the other. The first of them was Edgar, a gentle, pious king, who reigned during ten years of unbroken

peace. His brother, Alexander the Fierce, who followed him, had something of the spirit of his warlike father. He was also a great friend to the Church, and in his reign numerous monasteries were founded and enriched with lands and money.

9. In 1124 Alexander died without children, and then David, the youngest son of Malcolm Canmore, became king. He was one of the most renowned of Scottish kings, and in his day Scotland stood very high in the roll of nations. She enjoyed peace and prosperity. She was a refuge for exiles and a mart for foreign countries.

10. Henry the First of England was David's brother-in-law, and during the life of the English king there was friendship between the two countries. Henry's declining years, however, were filled with anxiety, because he had only a daughter, Matilda, to succeed him. As you already know, he made the barons, including his nephew Stephen, swear to have Matilda as their queen upon his death. When that event occurred, however, Stephen broke his oath and seized the crown.

11. King David thereupon marched into England to strike a blow for the rights of his niece. Twice he ravaged Northumberland, and treated the inhabitants with great cruelty. In the year 1138 he invaded Yorkshire, but was overcome at the battle of the Standard, near Northallerton.

12. The hero of the battle was the aged Archbishop of York, who assembled the barons and preached a holy war against the Scots. He brought together the banners of the three Yorkshire saints, and set them up on a cart which was wheeled into the fray. On the cart stood the arch-

bishop, praying and cheering his soldiers on to the fight. Again and again the English beat off the wild charges of the Highlanders and Galloway men who formed the bulk of David's army. After two hours' fighting the Scots fled, leaving ten thousand men dead on the field.

13. During the remainder of his life David was busy making changes which completely transformed his kingdom. He founded four bishoprics, introduced monks and friars, and built many of the noble abbeys which are now in ruins, amongst them the famous Abbey of Holyrood at Edinburgh.

14. He overhauled the laws of the kingdom, and on certain days sat at the gate of his palace to do justice to the poor. He encouraged manufactures and trades ; and under him the feudal system, somewhat as described in Lesson 13, was firmly founded in Scotland. The towns also grew to be important and prosperous. Berwick, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, and Stirling united into an association, which continues unto this day.

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## 24. THE STORY OF SCOTLAND.—II.

1. David died in 1153, and was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm the Maiden, so called because of his girlish appearance. He was a boy of twelve when he was crowned, and was but twenty-four years old when he died and made way for his brother William. This William is known in history as "The Lion," because he took as the royal arms the Scottish Lion, which is still used on the national standard. William had the longest reign of all the Scottish

sovereigns ; he ruled from 1165 to 1214, a period of forty-nine years.

2. For a time William the Lion kept on good terms with Henry the Second, but in 1173 he joined a conspiracy against the English king, headed by the son of Henry himself. As the price of his help, young Henry promised William that all the district to the north of the Tyne should be added to the Scottish crown. In the next year William led an army into Northumberland, where the Galloway men repeated their old work of pillage and butchery.

3. One foggy day, while William and his knights were tilting under the walls of Alnwick Castle, a band of English knights approached. William mistook them at first for his own men, but when he discovered his mistake, he cried, "Now we shall see which of us are good knights," and charged into the midst of the foe. He was soon overpowered and made prisoner.

4. Great was the joy of Henry when he heard that the King of Scotland was in his power. He imprisoned the "Lion" in the Castle of Falaise in Normandy. Half a year later William bought his freedom at a heavy price. He was forced to acknowledge himself a vassal of England for the whole of his kingdom, north as well as south of the Forth. Thus the freedom of Scotland was bartered away for the liberty of the king. During the rest of Henry's reign the position of William was by no means pleasant. His subjects were rebellious, but he dared not punish them without Henry's permission.

5. In the reign of Richard the First, however, Scotland bought back her independence, after being a vassal of the

English crown for fifteen years. In 1189, Richard, as you already know, sold his rights over Scotland for a sum of ten thousand marks, which went towards equipping an army for the Crusades. Scotland was once more free.

6. William died in his seventy-fourth year, and during the next seventy-two years Scotland enjoyed her “golden age.” At the end of that time, during the reign of the English king, Edward the First, Alexander the Third, while riding in the dusk towards Kinghorn, on the coast of Fifeshire, fell over the cliff and was killed. His death was a great blow to Scotland, and never was a Scottish sovereign so much lamented. His daughter Margaret, who had been married to Eric of Norway, had died three years before. Her infant daughter, also named Margaret, and known as the Maid of Norway, was now the heiress to the crown of Scotland.

7. A meeting of the nobles and clergy was held at Scone, and six guardians were elected to govern the kingdom. Then the “Estates,” as the Parliament of Scotland was called, proposed that Edward’s eldest son should marry the Maid of Norway, and thus, on the English king’s death, the crowns would be united, and the strife of the two countries ended. Nothing happier could have been arranged. Unfortunately, however, the Maid died during the voyage to Scotland, and at once difficulties arose.

8. A round dozen of claimants to the throne immediately appeared, the two most important of them being John Baliol, great-grandson of David, William the Lion’s brother, and Robert Bruce, grandson of the same. Bruce, as the son of David’s *second* daughter, was nearer to the

royal stock than Baliol, who was the grandson of David's *eldest* daughter. Baliol, however, was more directly descended from David. Edward proposed himself as umpire to decide between the would-be kings, and summoned the Scottish barons and clergy to meet him at Norham Castle in May 1291.

9. Before giving his decision, Edward insisted on being recognized as overlord of Scotland. The candidates to the throne, anxious to secure the umpire's good-will, consented; and then Edward gave judgment in favour of John Baliol, who was crowned, and paid homage to Edward as his overlord.

10. Now, Edward meant to be overlord of Scotland in very deed, and in a variety of ways he soon showed Baliol that he regarded him as nothing more than a vassal. This roused the Scots to bitter anger, and they forced Baliol to ally himself with France, and to send bands of raiders across the Border.

11. Edward marched north with a great host, crossed the Tweed, mercilessly stormed the frontier fortress of Berwick, and three weeks later defeated the Scottish army with great slaughter. Edinburgh, Stirling, and Perth fell into his hands, and in six months the conquest of Scotland was complete. Baliol was deposed, and allowed to retire to Normandy, where he died in 1314. When Edward returned to England he took with him the "Stone of Destiny."

12. Edward thought that he had tamed Scotland, just as he had tamed Wales, but he was mistaken. In less than a year the people of the West Lowlands were up in arms, under the leadership of a Strathclyde squire, William



*(From the picture by Daniel Maclise, R.A., in the Guildhall Art Gallery. By permission of the Corporation of London.)*

Wallace of Ellerslie. The revolt spread all over the Lowlands, and Edward's army, under the command of the Earl of Surrey, was overwhelmed at the battle of Stirling Bridge in 1297. All the fruits of Edward's conquest were destroyed at a blow. The Scottish barons, who had hitherto held aloof, now joined Wallace, who not only recovered all Scotland, but crossed the Tweed and cruelly ravaged the northern shires.

13. In 1298 Edward marched north again. He met Wallace at Falkirk, and completely overcame him. The Scots continued the struggle, but five years later the whole country was subdued. Wallace was captured and executed in 1305 ; but within a year of Wallace's death a third revolt began under Robert Bruce, the grandson of the Bruce who had been a claimant for the crown in 1291. He was one of the two men who now claimed the crown. The other was John Comyn, a son of John Baliol's sister. Bruce stabbed his rival in Dumfries Church, and gathering his followers at Scone, had himself crowned in March 1306.

14. At first his rebellion seemed to be a failure, and his army was dispersed by Edward's general. With a price on his head, Bruce was forced to seek shelter in the Highlands, and Edward treated his followers with great cruelty. These harsh measures brought many recruits to Bruce's standard.

15. The rebellion gained strength, and the stern, white-haired old English king mounted his horse and rode slowly towards Scotland for the third and last time. He died three miles from the Border, and with his latest breath he made his miserable son, Edward the Second, swear to con-

tinue the conquest. The new Edward, however, had no intention of keeping his oath. He turned back, and went home, to fling himself into the arms of worthless favourites.

16. A small force advanced into Scotland, but it could make no headway against the forces of Bruce. One strong place after another fell into his hands, and at last Stirling Castle alone was left. Even the craven Edward was now aroused, and in June 1314 he marched with a large army into Scotland. On the twenty-fourth of the same month a battle was fought at Bannockburn, two miles south of Stirling. It ended, as you already know, in the total defeat of the English. The victory was due to the skill of Bruce, the courage of his men, and the incompetence of King Edward. By this great victory Scotland won back her independence. "From the dust and reek of that burning day Scotland emerges a people, firm in a glorious memory."

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## 25. THE LONG-BOW.

1. To-day we will visit the church-yard of an old English village. We are not going to look at the church, with its time-worn tower and its mantle of ivy; nor are we going to read the epitaphs on the ancient tombstones, beneath which the "rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep." We are going to see a group of noble yew trees. They are





Edward the Third at the Siege of Calais.  
(From the painting by Sir John Gilbert, R.A. By permission of the Corporation of London.)

tall evergreen trees, with thick trunks and great branches. Their wood is hard, springy, smooth, and tough. We shall find yew trees in many of the old churchyards of England.

2. If you are thoughtful, you will perhaps ask yourself why yew trees should have been planted in so many of our churchyards. Well, first of all, they are solemn and gloomy looking trees, and seem suitable for the place where the dead lie buried. There is another reason too. Before the days of gunpowder our forefathers used bows in their warfare. The wood of the yew makes the best of bows. Yew trees were planted in the churchyards because their wood in olden days supplied the men of the village with their bows.

3. Here is a verse of a stirring song, called “The Bowmen of England” :—

“ What of the bow ?  
The bow was made in England,  
Of yew wood, of true wood,  
The wood of English bows.  
So men who are free  
Love the old yew tree,  
And the land where the yew tree grows.”

4. The long-bowmen of England never had their peers. They were the flower of the archers of the world. We are not quite sure which nation first used the long-bow, but we do know that in the year 1252, during the reign of Henry the Third, all men with more than forty shillings and less than one hundred shillings in land, and all townsmen with goods worth more than nine and less than twenty marks, were ordered to take the field with bow and arrows, instead of the lance as formerly.

5. Up to that time the heavily-armed horseman was the chief power in battle. His day, however, was fast passing away. Simon de Montfort was the last English general to win victories by the charges of heavy cavalry alone. In the days of Edward the First, his great pupil, the long-bow became the national weapon. With the six-foot bow and the clothyard shaft Edward's archers triumphed over the Welsh and the Scots.

6. The battle of Falkirk was won almost entirely by the bow, and one of the reasons why Bannockburn was lost in the reign of Edward the Second was because that miserable son of a great father did not know how to use archers. "He put them," says a writer of the time, "behind the knights, instead of on their flanks, and bade them fire over their heads; hence they hit some few Scots in the breast, but struck many more of their own friends in the back."

7. So important did Edward the First and his successors consider the art of archery that a law was made ordering every man, except judges and clergymen, to possess a bow of his own height, and keep it ready for use. A father had also to give bows to his sons, and see that from ten years of age and upwards they were trained to shoot. Butts were set up in every parish, and the men had to practise at them on one day in each week. If they did not do so they were fined.

8. Englishmen were nearly all brought up to the use of the bow, and their marksmanship was extraordinary. Their bows could carry a clothyard shaft three hundred yards with such force that it would pierce everything that was not protected by armour. At a shorter range it would

even pierce the steel plates with which knights then covered their bodies. Robin Hood, you will remember, was the prince of bowmen. According to an old tale, he once shot an arrow two miles and an inch ! I am afraid that the man who told the story was “drawing the long-bow” in quite another way.

9. Under Edward the Third the English bowmen did their most notable deeds. You already know that Edward the Third tried to win the crown of France for himself. He began a war with the French which lasted on and off for one hundred years. I shall tell you about this war in the next lesson. In the seventh year of the war the famous battle of Crécy was fought, and was won almost entirely by the archers. Let me describe this battle.

10. The English line was in two divisions. In each of the divisions there were about two thousand archers and eight hundred men-at-arms. The archers in each division were drawn up on the slope of a gentle hill, and were arranged like the points of a harrow, so that each man in the second line could shoot between two of the first. King Philip had an army five or six times as strong as that of the English, and it consisted almost wholly of horse-soldiers in armour. In front of his line of mailed knights were Genoese cross-bowmen.

11. The cross-bowmen began the battle, but they were almost useless against the English archers. Their bow-strings had been wetted and made slack by the rain, while those of the English had been kept dry. At its best the cross-bow was a clumsy weapon. While the Genoese was winding up his bow for a single shot, the English archer

could fire half-a-dozen arrows. The long-bow had also a longer range, so that the cross-bowmen were shot down and dispersed before they were able to do much mischief.

12. Then the knights advanced, riding through or over the routed cross-bowmen. At once the English archers began to fire long, steady volleys at the advancing line. Down went men and horses "in one red burial blent." Soon a great heap of wounded and dead lay before the archers, and this ghastly barrier prevented the knights from riding them down. Only here and there did the Frenchmen come to hand strokes with the English men-at-arms.

13. For some hours the battle surged along the English front, while the arrows whistled through the air with deadly effect. At nightfall the French knights fled, leaving a quarter of their whole army dead or dying on the stricken field. Thus the battle was won, and the archers had not moved a single pace from their first position. Nine years later, at Poictiers, our bowmen gained another great victory.

14. Edward's great-grandson, Henry the Fifth, continued the war, and once again the English archers won great renown. At Agincourt the English line of battle was formed in much the same way as at Crécy, only that each of the archers carried an ironshod stake, which he planted in the ground before him as a protection against the charge of cavalry. The ground in front was a slippery ploughed field, and in this the knights, weighed down by their heavy armour, were almost powerless.

15. Well-nigh every horse and most of the riders were shot down before they reached the archers at all. Some of them stuck fast in the mire, and when Henry gave the

order for his whole army to charge, the lightly-clad archers slung their bows on their backs, and with axe, mace, and sword fell upon the hampered knights, and soon settled the day. The French lost ten thousand men at Agincourt, the English scarcely a hundred.

16. The bow continued to be the national weapon right down to the reign of Elizabeth, at which time the heavy gun and the musket, known as the arquebus, were in general use both at home and abroad. The fleet which scattered the Armada contained many archers. Not until the seventeenth century did the long-bow finally give place to firearms.

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## 26. THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—I.

1. You remember that when we visited Westminster Abbey we saw the Coronation Stone. Not far away from it is the shield of Edward the Third. Here is a



SHIELD OF EDWARD III.



SHIELD OF PHILIP VI.

picture of it. You notice that it is divided into four parts or quarters. In the second and third quarters are three lions *passant gardant*—that is, walking and looking out from the shield. These stand for England.

2. In the first and fourth quarters are figures which are supposed to resemble lilies. Here is a picture of the royal shield of Philip the Sixth, who was King of France when Edward the Third was King of England. You notice that it is strewn with these lilies, the *fleurs de lys* as they are called.

3. Now you see that Edward the Third has quartered the royal arms of France on his shield side by side with the royal arms of England. What does this mean? It means that Edward the Third, the grandson of the "hammer of the Scots," claims to be King of France as well as King of England. This claim was persisted in by several later sovereigns, and the lilies of France appeared upon the shields of English kings and queens down to the beginning of the 19th century.

4. Our connection with France has been very long and very close. Edward the Confessor, you will remember, had lived for many years in Normandy before he succeeded to the English crown. He brought over hosts of French friends, and these paved the way for the coming of a French king. When William, Duke of Normandy, conquered England, Frenchmen became masters of this country. I told you in Lesson 13 what an important influence the Norman-French language, ideas, and manners had upon the English people.

5. When the Duke of Normandy became King of England the sorrows of England began. They did not end until English dominion in France was entirely lost. Many of William's Norman barons possessed estates both in Normandy and in England. They regarded Normandy

as their mother country, and England as a conquered land from which they drew tribute. They despised the English, and refused to throw in their lot with them.

6. When, however, the French possessions of the English kings were lost, the barons had to choose whether they would be Frenchmen or Englishmen. Those great families which had estates on both sides of the English Channel divided into two branches. One branch became French, and, in the course of time, the other branch became English.

7. Henry the Second, you will remember, was master of the greater part of France. He wore the gilt coronet of Normandy in succession to his mother, and by his marriage with Eleanor he obtained such a large and rich territory in the south of France that he actually held sway over more French country than the King of France himself. In the reign of the wicked King John most of these possessions were lost, except the rich and fertile province of Gascony.

8. The French kings cast longing eyes on the fair lands which still remained in the hands of the English, and constantly strove to win them back. They kept nibbling at the frontier, and by the time Edward the Third came to the throne they had seized a number of towns, which they refused to give up. This was the chief cause of the long struggle known in history as the Hundred Years' War.

9. Another important reason for the war was that the French king was trying hard to crush the people of Flanders, which, as you know, was the country which made cloth out of English wool. Edward knew that the prosperity of

his kingdom depended upon the friendship of the great cloth-working towns of Flanders. If these towns fell into the hands of France, England's great wool trade would be in danger. Edward soon saw that war could not be avoided, and, in the year 1337, for the second time, he boldly put forth a claim to the French throne.

10. On the death of Charles the Fourth, nine years before, Edward had been one of the three claimants to the French throne. He had claimed through his mother Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fourth of France. Philip's three sons had reigned, and had died leaving only daughters to succeed them. The real heir to the throne was Charles, the grandson of Philip's eldest son, and he, like Edward, claimed through his mother.

11. The French lawyers held that the law of France forbade a woman to wear the crown. Edward replied that though his mother had no claim, she could pass one on to her son. The French lawyers had laughed at the idea, and had set both the claimants aside in favour of Philip of Valois, a cousin of the late king. When Edward decided on war, Philip had been reigning for ten years.

12. In the long war that was now to begin England had three great advantages over France—she had a better fleet, and thus soon won the command of the sea ; her archers were far better shots than those of France ; and her generals were more skilful. On land Edward was unsuccessful at first, but at sea he was able to destroy the whole French fleet, and thus free England from the danger of invasion. The English people were delighted at this victory, and forthwith dubbed Edward “ King of the Sea.”

**27. THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.—II.**

1. In the seventh year of the war Edward landed at La Hogue in Normandy, and on August 26, 1346, he fought the great battle of Crécy, which you read about in Lesson 25. Then he pushed on to besiege Calais, which was little better than a nest of pirates who continually preyed on English shipping. Calais stands in a flat and marshy country, and in those days only three roads crossed the marsh to the city. Edward held these roads, and also blockaded Calais by sea.

2. Outside the walls he built a wooden town, which he called "Newtown the Bold," and there he sat for eight months. Meanwhile the Scots, who were the allies of the French, invaded England, but were badly beaten at Nevil's Cross, and their king, David Bruce, was taken prisoner. He was kept in captivity for eleven long years, and was only allowed to return to Scotland after promising to pay a ransom which in our days would amount to about a million and a quarter sterling.

3. Calais suffered terribly, and Philip tried to relieve it, but in vain, and in the year 1347 the city surrendered. It was of the highest value to the English kings so long as the Hundred Years' War lasted, for it provided them with an open doorway into France. You may be sure that the French felt the loss keenly.

4. The war began again in 1355, and at Poictiers the Black Prince, Edward's eldest son, utterly overthrew a great French army which was trying to cut him off from the town of Bordeaux. In the fight King John, the successor

of Philip, was captured, and, as you already know, was treated in a most knightly manner by the Black Prince. Despite the king's capture, the war continued for four years, and then peace was made.

5. Look at a map of France, and find the river Loire. You will notice that one of its left-bank tributaries is called the Vienne. Almost all the country between the Loire and the Vienne on the north, and the Pyrenees on the south, was the English king's land after peace was made. Strange to say, however, these great conquests were soon lost. During the last seven years of Edward's reign, one place after another fell into the hands of the French. Before Edward lay in his grave, his dominions in France had dwindled down to the ports of Bordeaux and Bayonne and the fortress of Calais.

6. The French were not satisfied to rest and be thankful while the English held any part of France at all. They therefore continued the war off and on during the unhappy reign of Richard the Second, the eldest son of the Black Prince, who had died during the lifetime of his father. In Richard's reign troubles abounded in England, and some of them we shall read of in a later lesson. At last the country was in such a state of confusion that Parliament made the king give up his throne to his cousin Henry the Fourth, the son of Edward the Third's third son.

7. Henry, like his grandfather, Edward the Third, and his uncle, the Black Prince, would gladly have sought fortune and fame in a war with France. He had, however, no opportunity of doing so, for plots and rebellions at home kept him busy and anxious for more than half his reign.

When at last the land was at peace, he was too old and feeble to have heart for such an undertaking.

8. His son, Henry the Fifth, was in a very different position. He was young and handsome, a fine soldier, and very popular with his subjects. He soon saw that nothing would make England peaceful at home but war abroad. He therefore renewed the war with France, and in this enterprise he had the whole of England at his back. France at the time was ruled by a mad king, and was much weakened by the quarrels of her princes and nobles.

9. Henry set up the old claim of Edward the Third, and demanded all the old French possessions of the English kings. Of course his demand was refused. Parliament gave him liberal grants of money, and the king even pawned the crown jewels to get the means wherewith to equip his archers and men-at-arms. He set sail late in the summer of 1415, and landed at Harfleur. Seven weeks were occupied in capturing the town ; and by the end of the siege his army was so much reduced that he resolved to march along the coast to Calais, and there await the coming of fresh troops from England.

10. The English were weary and footsore, wasted by disease, and weakened by want of food. They crossed the Somme, only to find an army of Frenchmen, five times as great as their own, blocking the way to Calais. Next day, October 25, 1415, the famous battle of Agincourt took place. You already know that the French were hopelessly beaten. The English actually slew a greater number of men than there were in the whole of their own ranks.

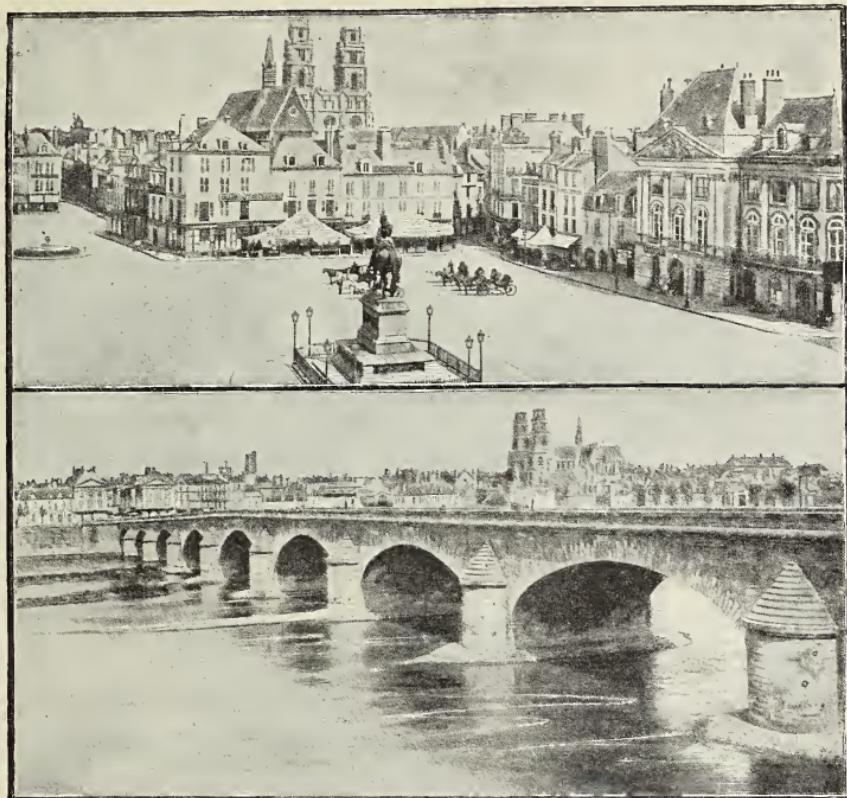
11. A great welcome awaited Henry and his army in

England, and preparations were at once made for a further invasion of France. Two years later he crossed the Channel again, and by 1419 he was master of the whole of Normandy. The French nobles, by their bitter quarrels, played into Henry's hands ; and in the next year the French king, Charles the Sixth, was forced to make a treaty, by which Henry was to marry his daughter, the Princess Catherine, to be regent of France, and his successor on the throne. The Dauphin, the French king's eldest son, refused to be bound by any such treaty, and continued the war.

12. Henry was master of France for little more than two years. In 1422 he died at the early age of thirty-five, worn out by the fatigues of many campaigns. His son Henry was a baby less than a year old. The baby-king's uncle, John of Bedford, became regent, and he carried on the war with France. He was an able soldier and a wise man. For a time he held his own, and even won several victories ; then the tide of fortune began to turn.

13. In 1429 the first great blow was dealt at the English power. The English soldiers had laid siege to Orleans, and were on the point of taking it, when Joan of Arc, clad in knightly armour and displaying a white banner before her, rode at the head of the Dauphin's army to the relief of the city. This famous girl was a peasant from Lorraine. She believed that she had been chosen by Heaven to save France from the English.

14. Joan entered the city, and led the garrison in their assaults on the besiegers. The first attack was successful, and then the people of Orleans hailed her as a deliverer sent by God. The English dreaded her approach, and were



VIEWS IN MODERN ORLEANS.

forced to raise the siege. Everywhere they were driven back, and three months later the Dauphin was crowned as Charles the Seventh at Rheims. In the spring of the next year Joan was sold to the English, and in 1431 was burned as a witch in the market-place of Rouen; but even this cruel act did not stem the tide of French success. Bedford died in 1435, and the English power in France slowly but surely passed away. By 1453 nothing was left of all the English conquests but the town of Calais.



SMITHFIELD.

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**28. “HURLING TIME.”—I.**

1. To-day we will visit a historic part of London. Starting from St. Paul's Cathedral, we walk down Ludgate Hill, and, turning to the right along Old Bailey, we cross Holborn Viaduct, and pass through Giltspur Street. We now find ourselves in an open space known as Smithfield. In the middle is a railed-in garden with turf and trees and a fountain. On the north side are the extensive buildings containing the London Central Meat Market and the poultry, fish, vegetable, and hay markets, and on the east side is the famous St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

2. In the fourteenth century Smithfield was outside the north-western gate of the city. The name means “smooth field,” and in the times of which we are speaking it was the

great jousting ground on which knights were always ready to challenge each other to feats of arms. Giltspur Street reminds us of the same period, for none but knights might wear gilt spurs at their heels.

3. Smithfield has other historic memories too. The Scottish patriot Wallace was beheaded in 1305, near the spot on which we are now standing. Seventy-six years later a deed was done at Smithfield which brought to an end the greatest rising of English labourers known to history.

4. Before I deal with this “Hurling Time,” as it is called, let me tell you of a very sad event which happened twenty-eight years before Edward the Third died. In the year 1349 a dreadful plague known as the Black Death ravaged this country. It began in China, where some five millions of persons perished, and slowly spread to the shores of the Black Sea. Brought by sailors to Constantinople, it raged across Europe, and in August 1348 first appeared in these islands at Melcombe Regis in Dorsetshire. Within a fortnight it was in Bristol; then it reached Gloucester; and by the beginning of November it was in London. Slowly but surely it spread to all parts of the kingdom.

5. The plague showed itself by large boils and black spots, which were known as “God’s tokens.” Then followed severe inflammation of the lungs, and death took place often in a few hours, usually in less than three days. The plague attacked all classes, from the daughter of the king to the child of the humblest serf.

6. Thousands of homes were empty; hundreds of villages were deserted; the churches were left without clergy, the monasteries without monks, the convents without nuns.

“Sheep and cattle strayed through the fields of corn, and there were none left who could drive them.” The harvest was ungathered, the fields were unploughed. “The sound of the grinding was low,” and “the mourners went about the streets.”

7. In fourteen months the plague was stayed. Let us see what followed. Half the labourers had died, half the fields were untilled, and half the crops lay rotting on the ground. The price of corn was twice what it had been before the plague, and the labourers needed twice their old wages in order to live. Labourers were few, and the land-owners, owing to the death of so many of their tenants, had a great deal of land thrown upon their hands. There were not enough labourers to till the land, and when this happens their wages are sure to rise. For the first time in English history the labourers were able to dictate their own terms to their masters.

8. In some cases the wages asked were more than double what they had been before the plague. Women, for example, who formerly received one penny a day, now demanded twopence and even threepence. Of every quarter of wheat now harvested, one-eighth had to be paid over to the labourer as wages instead of one-twelfth before the plague. The man who threshed the corn also asked one-third more in wages than formerly.

9. Many of the labourers on the manors had managed to win their freedom by payment of a fine to their lords. These free labourers now began to reap a rich harvest. You may be sure that those who were still serfs grew bitterly discontented when they saw the prosperity of

their more fortunate fellows, and longed to be free themselves.

10. The landlords, on the other hand, were being ruined, and in 1349 they persuaded Parliament to pass what is known as the Statute of Labourers. This Act of Parliament began as follows: “A great part of the people, and especially of workmen and servants, having died of the pestilence, many, seeing the necessity of masters and great scarcity of servants, will not serve unless they may receive excessive wages, and some are rather willing to beg in idleness than by labour to get their living.”

11. Then the Act went on to say that every labourer, bond or free, able in body and within the age of three-score years, not having land of his own and not in service, should be bound to work for any master who should require him to do so, but that such servants should only receive the wages which were paid in the year before the plague. Any one who refused to work for these wages, or left his work to go elsewhere, was to be sent to jail. If a man asked more than the legal wages, he was to be brought before the court of the manor and made to pay double the wages which he demanded. Similarly, any lord who offered more than the legal wages was to be fined a sum equal to three times what he offered.

12. This law was extremely hard on the labourers. Before the plague the landlords had cared little whether their villeins remained on their manors or left them, so long as they had enough labour to cultivate their demesnes. Those who had left their masters in this way had become free labourers. Now that labour was so scarce and costly, the

masters began to seek out their villeins, and force them to return and do their old service. Lawyers were employed to hunt through the old court rolls for proofs that the so-called free labourers owed services to their lords. Even if a man could show that he was free at the time of Doomsday, it availed him nothing.

13. The labourers became once more bound to the soil, and were not permitted to leave the manor to which they belonged without a pass. Runaway labourers were made outlaws, and when they were captured were branded with the letter F to signify their falsity. The town which harboured them was fined ten pounds. These foolish attempts to bring back a state of serfdom which had really passed away were doomed to failure, and you will not be surprised to learn that they made the labourers extremely angry.

14. There were other reasons, too, why the labouring classes should be uneasy and unsettled. The taxes were very high, and, as far as the people could see, the money was wasted by the Government. In many parts of the country the forest laws were very harsh, and led to much angry feeling.

15. In the towns the craftsmen were banded together into gilds, which kept up the price of goods, and the poor labourer was again the victim. Then there was much anger against the Flemings, or people of Flanders, who had been brought over to this country to teach the English cloth-weaving, and by their quickness and skill were able to undersell the native workmen. For these and many other reasons the labourers of England were very discontented, and were ready to revolt.

## 29. “HURLING TIME.”—II.

1. “Hurling Time” began four years after the death of Edward the Third, in the reign of his grandson, Richard the Second. The labourers in many parts of the kingdom had formed clubs for the redress of their grievances. They were encouraged by the old soldiers who had come back from the French wars, and were fond of boasting that the yeoman’s arrow could do more than the knight’s spear.

2. They were also stirred up by preachers, who went to and fro amongst them throughout the country. A priest named John Ball was a very powerful preacher, and had great influence over the people. One of his sermons was preached on the following text,—

“ When Adam delved and Eve span,  
Who was then the gentleman ? ”

He said: “ Things will never go well in England so long as goods be not in common, and so long as there be villeins and gentlemen. By what right are they whom we call lords greater folk than we are ? On what grounds have they deserved it ? Why do they hold us as serfs ? They have leisure and fine houses ; we have pain and labour, the rain and the wind in the fields. And yet it is of us and our toil that these men hold their estate.”

3. In May 1381 the labourers were in the condition of dry tinder waiting for a spark to set it ablaze. At that time a tax of twelvepence per head was levied on every person in the kingdom above the age of fourteen. Twelvepence may not seem a large sum to you, but in those days it

was equivalent to twelve shillings of our present money. In the Kentish town of Maidstone one of the tax collectors insulted the daughter of Wat the Tiler, who gave the signal for the rising to begin by killing the offender with his hammer.

4. The peasantry rose throughout a large part of England. In almost every shire from Somerset to York large numbers of men left their work in the fields, and arming themselves with clubs, rusty swords, axes, old bows, hedge stakes, or anything else they could lay their hands on, marched towards London. There was a good deal of murder and lawlessness on the way, but the rebels, one and all, declared themselves loyal to King Richard.

5. The Essex men under Jack Straw encamped at Hamps-  
stead, the Kentish men under Wat the Tiler at Blackheath, and the Hertfordshire folk at Highbury. Then they sent to the boy-king and asked him to speak with them. The king wished to hear what they had to say, but the Archbishop of Canterbury advised him not to “listen to such shoeless rascals.”

6. The Lord Mayor of London, William Walworth, and the richer burgesses wished to keep the peasants out of London, but the poorer citizens opened the gates and let their country brethren in. The rebels were especially angry with the lawyers, who had, as they thought, tricked them once more into serfdom. They therefore burnt the Temple and every law book and tax account which they could lay their hands on. They also murdered many Flemings and other aliens.

7. On the fourteenth of July the king rode through

Aldgate out to Mile End Meadow, where he met the Essex men under Jack Straw. Their demands show us the real origin of the movement. “What will ye?” asked the king. “We will,” answered the peasants, “that you free us for ever, us and our lands, and that we be never named or held for serfs.” “I grant it,” said the king, and the Essex men believed him and went quietly home.

8. Meanwhile Wat the Tiler and his followers had broken into the Tower of London, and had beheaded two of the chief officers of the State. This, however, did not frighten the young king, and next morning, with the mayor and several knights, he rode to Smithfield, where we now stand, in order to meet Wat and his host.

9. Tiler rode up on a small horse and dismounted. He held a dagger in one hand, and with the other he shook hands heartily with Richard, and bade him be of good cheer, for he would soon be very popular with the commons. Then Tiler, at the king's request, set forth the demands of the peasants. Richard promised to grant them all.

10. Tiler, remounting his horse, was about to ride away when he overheard one of the knights in the king's train say, “Yonder Tiler is the greatest thief and robber in the county of Kent.” Tiler was so angry that he tried to kill the knight with his dagger. Walworth, the Lord Mayor, interfered, and Tiler turned upon him and struck at him. Walworth was saved by his armour, and instantly drew his sword and wounded Tiler in the neck and head. On this one of the royal squires leaped from his horse and stabbed the peasant leader to death as he lay helpless on the ground.

11. At once Wat's friends shouted, “Let us stand together ; we will die with our captain, or avenge him. Shoot, lads, shoot !” and they bent their bows. The young king, however, with great coolness and courage, rode towards them and called out, “What is this, my men ? Will you shoot your king ? Have no care for Wat's death. He was a traitor. I will be your captain ; come, follow me, and you shall have the charters which you ask for.” Seeing the boldness of the boy, the peasants followed him quietly to Islington, while Walworth rode back into London to gather troops. When the soldiers arrived, the peasants went off quietly to their homes.

12. The rising was at an end ; but now that Wat was dead, the knights and rich citizens grew courageous again, and persuaded Richard to break his word. Parliament met in November, and the king said that he had repealed the charters which he had granted, because he had no power to deal with other men's goods or bondsmen. Then came the day of punishment. Thousands of the poor peasants were hanged, and a time of great misery followed.

13. From beginning to end the whole rising lasted only three weeks, nevertheless it marks a very important period in English history. The peasants seemed to have gained nothing, but as a matter of fact they had prevented their masters from setting up again the old slavery. Serfdom was already dead, and it rapidly passed away. As we stand in Smithfield, near the great meat market where the fat cattle of the shires are sold to feed London's teeming millions, let us remember that here began the freedom which the peasants of England now enjoy.



BOSWORTH FIELD (KING DICK'S WELL).

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### 30. THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1. To-day we will visit the little town of Market Bosworth, twelve miles to the west of Leicester. Three miles to the south-east of Market Bosworth we see what was formerly a stretch of open uncultivated country known as Redmore. It is now enclosed and tilled, and is called Bosworth Field. Let us pass on to yonder monument, which was erected in 1812 over a small spring of water. The inscription on it tells us that King Richard quenched his thirst at this spring on the day of the battle of Bosworth Field. We are now standing on the scene of the last fight of the Wars of the Roses. Here it was that Richard the Third was slain, and Henry Tudor was crowned King of England.

2. In Book III. you read an outline of the battles and executions, the treasons and miseries of the long, selfish struggle which is known as the Wars of the Roses. The strife raged, with long intervals of peace, for thirty years, and the chief matter at issue was the rival claim to the throne of the families of York and Lancaster.

3. King Henry the Sixth, the son of the warlike Henry the Fifth, was a frail and feeble man, both in mind and body. He meant well, and was both pious and studious, but he always needed a strong arm to lean upon. In the early part of his reign he found the strong arm in his minister Suffolk ; later in his reign he was ruled by his strong-willed queen, Margaret of Anjou.

4. Now, Suffolk was very unpopular with the English people. The great dominions which Henry the Fifth had won in France were slipping away one by one from the English grasp, and the anger of the people knew no bounds. When at last Normandy and Guienne were lost, and nothing remained save Calais and the Channel Islands, the House of Commons determined to try Suffolk on a charge of high treason. Henry sent his favourite off to Calais so as to be out of the way until the storm blew over. During the voyage Suffolk was captured by some London ships, and, after a mock trial, his head was struck off.

5. Suffolk's friends, however, still remained in power, and Henry would not dismiss them. Discontent was rife everywhere, and in 1450 Jack Cade, a soldier of fortune, raised the Kentish and Sussex men and marched on London. He was easily overcome, but had he been a man of position

and a commander who could have kept his followers in order, the rising might have been very serious indeed.

6. Richard, Duke of York, now came over from Ireland, of which he was governor, and put himself at the head of those who opposed the king. You will remember that Henry the Sixth, who represented the house of Lancaster, was descended from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, third son of Edward the Third. Richard, Duke of York, was descended, on his mother's side, from Lionel of Clarence, the second son of Edward the Third; and, on his father's side, from Edmund, Duke of York, the fourth son of Edward the Third. He represented the house of York, and through his mother had a better claim to the throne than the man who then occupied it. He expected to be king on the death of Henry, who was childless.

7. York urged Henry to send away Somerset, the minister who had taken the place of Suffolk; but the king refused, and was supported by many of the nobles. Ill-feeling between the parties grew apace. Most of the people of England sided with York, especially the citizens of London and the farmers of the south and the Midlands. In 1453 the king went mad, and York was made Protector of the realm. Just as all the trouble seemed to be past, a son was born to the king, and Henry recovered from his madness. York was at once dismissed, and Somerset took his place.

8. Hastily gathering his retainers and friends, York marched towards London. Somerset and the king met him at St. Albans, and a brief struggle took place in the streets of the old city. Victory rested with York; Somerset was

slain, and the king was captured. This battle marks the beginning of the Wars of the Roses, which you know were so called because the members of the rival parties wore a rose as their badge—a white rose for York, a red rose for Lancaster.

9. When the war broke out, the disbanded soldiers who had fought in France freely offered their services to one side or the other. These hired soldiers, together with the gentry and personal followers of the great nobles, made up the armies which were engaged in the struggle. For the most part the people took little interest in the fighting, and the business of the country was not interrupted. The judges still went on circuits as of old, and the peasant would often pause on his hillside furrow, and lean on the handles of his plough, to view the nobles of the land dashing themselves to pieces in battle on the plain below. The war was a war of a class and not of the nation.

10. Five months after the battle of St. Albans the poor king lost his wits again, and York became Protector a second time. Again, however, the king recovered, and again York was dismissed. Both parties then prepared for war once more. The fierce young Queen Margaret put herself at the head of the king's friends, and journeyed up and down the land enlisting men to wear the "white swan" badge and fight for her infant son's rights.

11. At the head of the nobility stood Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, afterwards known as the Kingmaker. He was an ambitious man, very rich and very powerful. He had eight hundred followers who wore his badge—"the bear and the ragged staff"—and he was the most

notable person of his day. Some of the queen's retainers tried to murder him, and this led to a fresh outbreak of hostilities.

12. At first the fortune of war rested with the Yorkists. The battle of Northampton, which took place in 1460, resulted in the death of many Lancastrian nobles, the captivity of the king, and the flight of Margaret and her son. York then, for the first time, boldly claimed the throne. Parliament proposed that Henry should remain king for life, and that on his death York should succeed him. To this York agreed.

13. Queen Margaret, however, had to be reckoned with. She hastened north to rouse the Border barons, who hated the Protector. At Wakefield, in the year 1460, she defeated and slew him. His head, crowned in mockery with a diadem of paper, was set up above the gate of York, the "white rose city." So perished the wisest statesman of his time. Richard's place was taken by his son Edward, a warlike young fellow of eighteen, who at once marched on London, and was declared king as Edward the Fourth in the year 1461. Then he set out to defeat his foes and to avenge his father's death.

14. On Palm Sunday, in the same year, the battle of Towton was fought during a storm of wind and snow. The snow drove into the faces of the Lancastrians, and their arrows, blown back by the wind, fell short of the mark. When their quivers were empty, the Yorkists drew near, poured in volley upon volley, and then charged. The Lancastrians fought desperately, but gave way at last, and were pursued and slain without mercy. Thirty thousand men

fell at Towton, and this battle practically decided the war. For several years, however, Margaret, with the aid of the French, kept up a strong resistance in the north. In 1464 she was forced to leave the country.

15. The Yorkist cause now appeared secure, and Edward, who had hitherto acted on Warwick's advice, began to slight him. At last king and Kingmaker quarrelled, and Warwick in bitter anger made a treaty with Margaret, who was then in France. He invaded England on her behalf, and Edward was forced to fly for safety to Holland. Henry was once more placed upon the throne; but six months later Edward returned from exile, raised an army, and slew Warwick at Barnet. A fortnight later he destroyed the remnant of the Lancastrian forces at Tewkesbury.

16. Margaret's son was slain as he fled from the battle, and soon afterwards old King Henry was murdered in the Tower. Thenceforward Edward the Fourth reigned in peace, and when he died in 1483 the crown quietly passed to his son, Edward the Fifth. The long reign of violence and bloodshed, however, was not yet at an end. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, uncle of the boy-king, turned traitor to his nephew, and seized the crown. To secure himself on the throne, he caused young Edward and his brother to be strangled in the Tower.

17. This crime profited him little, for two years later, Henry Tudor, who represented the claim of the Lancastrians, overthrew his forces and slew him at Bosworth Field, where we now stand. Henry was crowned king on the battlefield. Thus the red rose triumphed, and the Wars of the Roses came to an end.

18. What were the results of these years of miserable strife? During the long warfare Yorkist and Lancastrian showed no mercy to each other; they killed and beheaded each other freely, and thus it happened that whole families of nobles passed away. Now, the barons had always been the greatest check on the power of the king, and when their power was gone the kings were able to rule as absolute monarchs. As yet the people had no leaders, and they were glad to be governed by a strong king who could preserve them from the horrors of another civil war. Thus the first result of the wars was to make Henry the Seventh and the other Tudor sovereigns complete masters of the realm.

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### 31. AN ELECTED KING.

1. To-day we will visit Westminster Abbey and make our way to the chapel of King Henry the Seventh, the most magnificent part of the whole building. The first stone of this superb chapel was laid seventeen years after the battle of Bosworth Field, "on the 24th daie of January, a quarter of an hourre afore three of the clocke at after noone," but it was not completed until after the king's death.

2. Notice the entrance gates. They are of bronze, mounted on oak, and are ornamented with the united roses of York and Lancaster, and other Tudor badges. The vaulted roof, with its airy network of stone and its wealth of carving, is wonderfully beautiful. At the eastern end is the tomb of Henry the Seventh and his wife, Elizabeth of York.

3. Now, standing within this splendid monument of the first Tudor king, let us learn something of the man and his work. You already know that he found England in a state of great unrest and disorder. For thirty years the Wars of the Roses had been raging, and this had prevented the nation from advancing. The power of the nobles had been destroyed, and the people were weary of tumult and strife. They longed for a strong king who would make the two rival houses friendly, and bring peace and prosperity to the land. Henry was just the man the nation then needed. He was clever, steadfast, patient, and strong-willed, and, above all, a lover of peace. During his reign he did many unlawful things, but the people bore them patiently, for they remembered the horrors of the civil war.

4. Henry claimed the throne by right of birth, but his claim was very weak. You already know that he only belonged to the kingly line through his mother, who was the great-granddaughter of Edward the Third's fourth son. He might equally well have called himself king by conquest, but he was no conqueror, as everybody knew. Parliament, however, paid little or no attention to these questions, but simply declared that Henry and no other should be king of the land, and that his heirs should succeed him. Thus Henry did not wear the crown by right of birth, or because he had defeated Richard the Third in battle, but because Parliament agreed to accept him as king. The Act of Parliament which made Henry king is worth our careful attention, because it stated once more the old right of the English people to elect their king.

5. Five months after the battle of Bosworth Field Henry married Elizabeth of York, and thus united the claims of the two rival houses. Nevertheless there were still a number of reckless Yorkists who plotted and rebelled against him. Within the first six months of his reign they rose in arms, and within the next twelve years they fought for several pretenders to the throne. These attempts to thrust Henry from the throne were forlorn hopes, and ended in dismal failure.

6. The first of these impostors was Lambert Simnel, the ten-year-old son of an Oxford tradesman. He had been carefully trained by a priest to play the part of the young Earl of Warwick, the only male heir of the house of York. He first made his appearance in Ireland, where the people had always been friendly to the "White Rose." Amidst much rejoicing he was crowned king in Christchurch Cathedral, Dublin, and a small army of four thousand men was raised for him. With these and some German hired soldiers he landed in Lancashire, and was joined by a few desperate Yorkists.

7. A battle was fought at Stoke, near Newark, and Simnel's army of Irishmen and Germans was cut to pieces. After the battle Henry showed himself as merciful to his prisoners as he had been after the battle of Bosworth Field. He pardoned all who yielded to him; and as for the pretender, he made him a scullion in the royal kitchen. Some years later Henry amused himself by making Simnel hand dishes at a royal banquet to the Irish barons who had crowned the lad in the cathedral at Dublin.

8. Four years after an end had been made of Simnel's

attempt, a handsome young man appeared in Cork and declared himself Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two princes said to have been murdered in the Tower. For seven years this young man, whose real name was Perkin Warbeck, troubled the kingdom. He was supported with men and money by the sister of Edward the Fourth, Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, who hated Henry, and was ready to assist any one who would strike a blow at him. Warbeck was also supported by the Pope, James the Fourth of Scotland, and Charles the Eighth of France ; but their efforts were all in vain. He made several feeble attempts to invade the country, and at last, in the year 1497, during a time of great unrest in Cornwall, he landed in that county, and gathered six thousand men about him.

9. Henry met him at Taunton, but the night before the battle Warbeck lost heart and fled. His followers dispersed, the leaders were taken and hanged, and Warbeck, upon promise of his life, gave himself up and was lodged in the Tower. Here he met Warwick, the prince whom Simnel had pretended to be. The two prisoners hatched a plot, but it was revealed to the king, who now determined to rid himself of both his troublesome guests. Henry was probably driven to this course by the appearance of a third pretender, who also called himself Warwick. With the execution of the earl and Warbeck all danger to Henry's throne passed away. Thenceforth he ruled in peace.

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**32. “THE SOLOMON OF ENGLAND.”**

1. You already know that the nobles had so weakened themselves during the Wars of the Roses that Henry was enabled to rule as an absolute king. He was determined that those nobles who remained should never again be able to threaten the throne. The great lords had been in the habit of keeping a large number of retainers, who wore their livery, and in return for protection in their quarrels and lawsuits held themselves ready to do their lords' bidding. This was a very evil custom, for by means of their armed retainers the lords were able to wage little private wars on their own account, and by joining together threaten the king himself. Henry was determined to do away with this state of things, and Parliament passed an Act which forbade any lord to keep more than a certain number of retainers.

2. On one occasion Henry paid a visit to his oldest friend, De Vere, Earl of Oxford, at his castle of Hemmingham. As he left the castle Henry passed between two long lines of men all wearing the De Vere livery, and drawn up to do him kingly honour. When he asked who these men were, he was told that they were the earl's retainers. Turning to his host the king said, “By my faith, I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you.” The result was that the Earl of Oxford was fined the large sum of £15,000. In this way the king put an end to the small armies kept up by the great lords.

3. He aimed a further blow at them by setting up a

special court of justice known as the Star Chamber, because it met at Westminster in a room with a pattern of stars on the ceiling. This court consisted of a few trusted members of the Privy Council, whose business it was to see that justice was dealt out to those who were so rich and powerful that the ordinary courts of the land dared not punish them.

4. The king meant to make his justice felt from one end of the land to the other by all men, rich or poor, high or low, and by means of the Star Chamber he did so. The new court could inflict any punishment short of death, but it usually made the offender pay a heavy fine. There was no jury in Star Chamber trials, and this, at first, enabled justice to be done no matter how rich and powerful the accused might be. In later reigns the absence of a jury enabled the Star Chamber to do much injustice in an un-English way. It was bitterly hated by the people, and was abolished in 1641, after it had lasted one hundred and fifty-four years.

5. Henry meant to be an absolute king, and for this reason he did not summon many Parliaments. Of course he needed money to carry on the government, and this he chiefly obtained, not in the lawful way by grants from Parliament, but by all sorts of doubtful means. Two of his judges, for example, busied themselves in searching out old forgotten laws. Many persons who had broken these almost unknown laws were brought before the courts and forced to pay heavy sums to the king. As his coffers filled Henry became fonder and fonder of money, not so much because he was a miser, but because he knew that a well-

filled purse would keep him secure on his throne, and enable him to rule without a Parliament.

6. Another method by which Henry raised funds was to force people to lend him money which he did not intend to repay. These forced loans were called “Benevolences.” Henry’s chief agent in getting these benevolences was Archbishop Morton, who used an argument which is known as “Morton’s Fork,” because by means of it he was able to secure all his victims with one or other of its prongs. “If you live at great expense,” he used to say, “you are able to subscribe a great deal of money; if you live sparingly, you must have saved, and can afford to pay out of your savings.” When Henry died he left to his son the vast fortune, for those days, of £1,800,000.

7. Despite these wrongdoings, Henry deserves to rank with our greatest statesmen. He found England weak, unruly, and poor; he left her strong, orderly, and wealthy. He was a man of peace, and he kept out of Continental wars as far as possible. England was then but a third-rate power, with only a population of about three and a half millions, a weak army, and a navy which was not kept on a war footing. As yet she could hardly expect to take an important place amongst the European powers. Henry therefore gave most of his attention to home affairs.

8. He understood clearly that trade was the mainstay of his kingdom, and therefore he favoured merchants and helped them whenever he could. While he crushed the nobles, and made Parliament of little or no account, he enabled traders to become rich, and thus helped in raising

up those who were to become, in the course of time, the chief power in the kingdom.

9. Henry lived during a period of great change. A movement which was almost to transform the world was then sweeping over Europe. About the year 1453 Greek scholars, who had been driven from Constantinople by the Turks, settled down in Florence and began to teach their noble language, and lecture on the great writers of their land. The Italian scholars flocked to hear them, and soon a study of Greek became all the rage. This new study opened to them for the first time the books of the ancient Greek writers, and enabled them to feed their minds on the great thoughts of the great men who wrote in the noblest language of olden times. They were able, too, to read the New Testament in the tongue in which it was written.

10. From one study they turned to another. They re-read the works of the great Latin writers with a new interest and a wider knowledge. Searches were made for old books, and the Bible in the original Hebrew was re-discovered. Scholars all over Europe found a new world of knowledge awaiting them. While all this was going on, men learnt with amazement that the world was a much vaster and more remarkable world than they had thought it to be. Columbus crossed the unknown Atlantic, and found a new world waiting to be added to the old. This sudden contact with new lands and new races roused men's minds and made them full of a strange curiosity. They were eager to learn. The men of that age had, as it were, awaked out of the sleep of centuries.

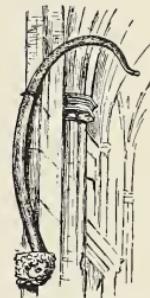
## 33. THE CABOTS.

1. Come with me to the fine old city of Bristol. It is one of the oldest places in the country, and is full of memories of past ages. There was a town on the site in the days of the ancient Britons, and the Romans occupied it in later years. In the unhappy reign of Ethelred the Unready it was so important that it had a mint of its own and struck silver pennies. Later on it became infamous because of its slave market. In the fourteenth century it was full of rich merchants, who owned large fleets of ships, and traded with all the sea-board countries of Europe. Next to London, Bristol was then the first seaport of the country.

2. Let us make our way to St. Mary Redcliffe, the finest of the many fine churches of Bristol. We go in by the western entrance, and there find what we seek. It is the rib of a cow-whale, and is fastened up to one of the pillars. The sexton who points it out to us tells us that it was placed in the church as far back as the year 1497 by Sebastian Cabot, when he returned from his famous voyage.

3. The men of Bristol are very proud of Sebastian Cabot, and of his father, John Cabot. If we go to the suburb of Clifton we shall see a fine bridge spanning the gorge of the Avon. Near the bridge stands a tower known as the Cabot Tower. It has been erected in memory of these two men. Why do the people of Bristol thus honour them?

4. Now, before I answer this question, let us recall the



CABOT RELIC  
IN ST. MARY  
REDCLIFFE.

days of Henry the Seventh. His reign will always be remembered as the golden age of geographical discovery. While the Wars of the Roses were raging the Portuguese were pushing across unknown seas along the west coast of Africa, bent on discovering a road to India. They did this because the old land routes to the East were occupied by the Turks, who had stopped all trade.

5. When Henry came to the throne there was a Genoese seaman, named Christopher Columbus, who had formed a great design, and was seeking, though vainly, to carry it out. He had heard strange stories of trunks of trees, reeds, pieces of carved wood, and other products of unknown lands, which had been picked up by sailors during their voyages. All these had drifted to Europe from the west, over the wild waste of waters then known as the Western Ocean.

6. In his early years Columbus had sailed to Iceland, and there had heard old Norse tales about a distant land across the sea towards the sunset. After years of study and thought he had come to believe that the unknown country far away to the west was India. He was eager to brave the dangers of the Western Ocean and prove the truth of his belief. From prince to prince he had gone, unfolding his plans, and had been laughed to scorn for his pains. At last, in the year 1487, he sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to try to win the ear of King Henry, who was known to be greatly interested in the work of exploration.

7. Bartholomew sailed for England, but on the way his ship was captured by pirates, and he became a galley-slave. At length he escaped and reached London, but he was at first so ill, and then so poor, that he was unable to speak

with the king. For a time he supported himself by making charts and globes, and at length he was introduced to Henry, whom he presented with a map of the world. Then Bartholomew told the king of his brother's plans. Henry listened to him, and promised his help, but put the matter off from day to day. Meanwhile Columbus had persuaded Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain to fit out an expedition for him. So you see that, but for these accidents, our English King Henry would have sent Columbus on his famous voyage.

8. On August 3, 1492, Columbus sailed from Palos with three ships no larger than the coasting schooners of our own day. Westward and ever westward he sailed, and on the morning of October 12 he saw before him one of the Bahama Islands. He seized it in the name of Spain, and then visited Cuba and Haiti. On March 15, 1493, he returned to Spain, bearing the wondrous news.

9. This striking discovery created a great stir in all the seaports of Europe, and the keen merchants of Bristol were not slow to see that there was wealth to be got from the new lands just discovered. Now at this time there was living at Bristol a Genoese seaman named John Cabot. He, too, had made voyages of exploration, and had come to England in the hope of getting help from Henry. When he heard the news of Columbus's success he went to the king, who, in the year 1495, gave him and his three sons permission to discover and conquer unknown lands.

10. Now look at the beautiful picture on page 165. It shows you the departure of John and Sebastian Cabot from Bristol one May morning in the year 1497. Their

expedition of two ships, one called the *Matthew*, sailed down the Avon and steered directly north-west, in the hope of reaching China, then called Cathay. For nearly two months they sailed on, and at last reached a sea in which "monstrous, great lumps of ice" were floating and there was continual daylight. On June 24 they sighted land. It was the coast of the dreary country now known as Labrador.

11. John and Sebastian Cabot hastened to land, and they were the first Europeans since the days of the Vikings to set foot on the mainland of the New World. They found natives dressed in skins, and brought three of them home for Henry to see. Then they sailed along the coast for three hundred leagues, and discovered a large island, which they called Newfoundland. Only when provisions began to fail did they turn back to England.

12. The Cabots returned from this famous voyage at the end of July, and reported that they had found new lands in the Northern Ocean rich in mines of copper. In one of King Henry's account books there is this entry: "To him that found the new isle, £10," which was, of course, a very much larger sum then than now. Next year John Cabot sailed westward again, this time with a small fleet of five ships, but we do not know what happened to him. Probably it was lost, for nothing more can be learnt about it.

13. Sebastian continued the family work of exploration. He is said to have sailed from Bristol in 1517, and to have discovered the bay and strait now known as Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait. In 1526 he explored the coast of South America, and seven years later was made Governor of the



**The Departure of John and Sebastian Cabot on their First Voyage of Discovery, 1497.**

*(From the picture by Ernest Board. By permission of the Bristol Corporation and the Artist.)*

Merchant Adventurers, a body of London citizens who were eager to open up new countries for trade. Chiefly owing to him Russia was visited by British seamen, and trade was begun with the country of the Tsar.

14. I have told you the story of the Cabots to show you that Englishmen had some part in the great discoveries that were being made during the reigns of Henry the Seventh, Henry the Eighth, Edward the Sixth, and Queen Mary. Though England had a share in these discoveries, it was but a small share. She was not yet ready for the great work of empire-building which she was to do in later times.

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### 34. THE NEW WORSHIP.

1. Here is a penny. Look at the side with the King's head on it, and read the words which are stamped round it: EDWARDVS VII DEI GRA: BRITT: OMN: REX FID: DEF: IND: IMP.: that is,

*Edward, by the Grace of God, King of all the Britains, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India.*

Now the part of our King's title which I wish you to notice is FID: DEF: "Defender of the Faith." The king who first won this title was Henry the Eighth, second son of Henry the Seventh. How came he to be called "Defender of the Faith"?

2. Up to about the year 1520 there was only one great Christian Church in the west of Europe. The head of it was the Pope, or Bishop of Rome. In the course of time the Church had fallen away from its old, simple,

pious ways, and many earnest men were anxious to see the abuses which had crept into doctrine and worship swept away. As far back as the reign of Edward the Third an Oxford scholar named Wycliffe pointed out the errors of the Church, and tried to reform it. He was the first great English Church reformer, and “the morning star of the Reformation.”

3. The Pope had never been popular in England, and his control in Church matters was always a source of trouble. This dislike had been strongly felt in the reigns of John, Henry the Third, and Edward the First, and in the fourteenth century the feeling grew so much stronger that several Acts of Parliament were passed to limit the Pope's power. The people were not only opposed to the Pope, but were dissatisfied with the great churchmen, such as Wolsey, who seemed to think far more of their worldly goods than of the welfare of religion.

4. Neglect of their duties and greed for money were common amongst the clergy of the day, and the Church had more than once used its great wealth and influence to prevent reforms which the nation strongly wished to have. No little dislike, too, was felt for the powers of self-government which the Church possessed. The clergy voted their own taxes for the use of the State, and they were not allowed to be punished for offences against the law by the ordinary courts of the land.

5. Then, too, the revival of learning had brought about a great change. For the first time there were many educated laymen in the land, and they were in a position to compare what the Church taught with what the clergy

did. They saw clearly that if the Church was to be a great power for good, the abuses which gave offence to many of its friends would have to be removed. Such men as Dean Colet and Sir Thomas More were eager to purify the Church, and even Wolsey had planned a scheme of reforms to be put into force when occasion should permit.

6. The great centre of the reform movement, however, was in Germany, where the preaching of Martin Luther was creating a great stir. Luther was born in Saxony in the year 1483, and at the age of twenty-one he became a monk. In the year 1517 he was roused to the utmost indignation by the visit of a friar, named John Tetzel, who came to Wittenberg, where Luther was then living, and sold what are called indulgences to the townsfolk for hard cash. Pope Leo the Tenth was then building his great church of St. Peter's at Rome, and in order to raise money he permitted the sale of these indulgences—that is, promises of freedom from those penances by which repentant persons were supposed to win forgiveness of their sins.

7. This so roused Luther that he wrote a number of tracts against indulgences, and nailed them to the church door. Copies of these tracts were sold and read everywhere. Soon Luther grew bolder and more outspoken, and attacked several of the chief doctrines of the Church. In 1520 the Pope issued a bull—that is, a paper with a *bulla* or seal attached to it—driving Luther out of the Church. Thereupon Luther called his friends together and publicly burnt the Pope's bull in the market-place.

8. Meanwhile the teachings of Luther and his friends were spreading rapidly, not only in Germany, Switzerland,

and France, but also in England and Scotland. The Pope now persuaded the Emperor Charles the Fifth to bring Luther to trial at a great meeting of nobles and bishops. Luther defended himself with great power, but the Emperor was ready to condemn him, and would have done so but for the many powerful friends who came to the Reformer's aid. In 1529 another meeting was held, at which the princes who supported Luther *protested* against what they thought to be the wrongful acts and mistakes of the Church. Because of this they were called Protestants.

9. Now let us return to King Henry and his title. As a young man, Henry was "every inch a king." He was the handsomest and ablest king of the time, and his manners were gracious and winning. At the outset of his reign he was the idol of his people, and he never altogether lost their love. At heart he was cruel and pitiless, and as years went by he became a hateful tyrant, who made his whim the law of the land, and ruthlessly sent to the scaffold all on whom his anger fell. Nevertheless, he was always careful to make his acts lawful by getting Parliament to agree to them. Like all the Tudors, he loved to be popular with the people, and his ministers had to bear all the blame for his unpopular acts. He was nearly always able to make the nation believe that its interests and his interests were the same. In this way he obtained greater power than any former king.

10. In 1521 Henry, who was a good scholar, and proud of his learning, wrote a book in answer to one of Luther's. In this book Henry upheld the teachings of the Church and the authority of the Pope. Henry's book pleased



PORTRAIT OF HENRY VIII.

*(By Hans Holbein the Younger. From the Royal Gallery at Windsor.)*

the Pope so much that he gave the English king the title which all his successors have borne—Defender of the Faith. Little did the Pope think that Henry was soon to be one of his bitterest foes.

11. At first the great mass of the English people did not trouble themselves much about Luther and his protests. They were, however, drawn into the great Reformation movement by the quarrel of their king with the Pope. Let us see how this came about. During the later years of Henry the Seventh's reign, Arthur, the heir to the throne, had been married to Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Arthur died young, and Catherine was afterwards married to his brother Henry.

12. Catherine was a gentle, pious woman, but she was not beautiful, and her health was feeble. All her children except one—the Princess Mary—had died, and Henry was eager to have a son to succeed him, for he was the only living male of the house of Tudor. After eighteen years of married life, Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honour. Before long he asked the Pope to declare that his marriage with Catherine had not been a real marriage, because she had been the wife of his brother Arthur.

13. Wolsey, ready as ever to serve his master, now asked the Pope to do as Henry wished. The Pope was then in a most unhappy condition. He dared not offend Charles the Fifth, the nephew of Queen Catherine, and this, of course, he would have to do if he granted Henry's request. Charles was determined that his aunt Catherine should not be divorced, and the Pope was in a great

difficulty. At the same time he was an ally of Henry, and was naturally anxious to favour him.

14. In his difficulty the Pope sought to gain time, and therefore appointed Wolsey and an Italian cardinal named Campeggio to inquire into the case. In June 1529 the two cardinals opened their court in the great hall of the Black Friars' Monastery in London. Catherine refused to answer when her name was called, but knelt at the feet of her husband and begged him not to disgrace her. Then rising, she bowed to the king and refused to face the court again. The trial dragged on, and Henry became impatient and asked for speedy judgment.

15. Meanwhile the Pope had made a treaty with Charles the Fifth, and he could now defy Henry. He therefore ordered the cause to be tried at Rome. Henry and Anne Boleyn were furious. They said that Wolsey had bungled the matter, and forthwith his doom was sealed. His office as chancellor was taken from him, and he was brought to trial for breaking an old law which forbade any one to ask the Pope to decide in a matter of dispute within the realm of England. Wolsey had only asked the Pope to do so at the king's request. The king, however, untruthfully declared that Wolsey had acted without his knowledge and consent.

16. Thereupon Wolsey was found guilty. All his property was taken from him, and he was banished to his cathedral town of York. Shortly afterwards fresh charges were brought against him, and he was ordered to London. Sick and weary he reached Leicester, and when the abbot and the monks came forward to receive him he said truly,

“Father, I am come to lay my bones among you.” He died a few days later, crying,—

“Had I but served my God with half the zeal  
I served my king, He would not in mine age  
Have left me naked to mine enemies.”

So died the great cardinal, the victim of a sovereign who heartlessly flung away his servants as soon as they ceased to be useful to him.

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### 35. “THE HAMMER OF THE MONKS.”

1. There is scarcely a county in England or Wales which does not boast a ruined abbey. Some of these old buildings are now nothing but a few crumbling walls and broken arches; others are in a better state of repair, and are carefully preserved to remind us of days long gone by.

2. A happier fate has befallen some of the best of them, for they have become cathedrals or parish churches. If you visit one of the many ruined abbeys in Great Britain, and gaze on its roofless aisles and broken pillars, you will be sure to ask—if you do not know already—how it came to pass that these glorious old buildings were allowed to fall into decay.

3. Now in order to answer this question we must proceed with the story of Henry’s quarrel with the Pope. In 1529, the year of Wolsey’s fall, the Great Parliament which “broke the bonds of Rome” was called together. Sir Thomas More became Lord Chancellor, and Anne Boleyn’s uncle and father filled high offices in the state. In matters of religion Henry now began to follow the

advice of Thomas Cranmer, a Cambridge Fellow, who believed that the king was not lawfully married, and that the English Church Courts could give Henry a divorce without asking the Pope's consent.

4. Cranmer suggested that the universities of Europe should be asked to say “whether or no a man may marry his brother's wife.” This was done, and the universities, on the whole, said “No.” Meanwhile Cranmer was rapidly promoted in the Church. Within a little more than three years he was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was a pious, capable man, gentle and kindly, but his will was weak and his moral courage was feeble.

5. The Pope gave no sign of yielding in the matter of the divorce, so Henry began to put pressure upon him. He called the clergy together in the year 1531, and informed them that they had broken the law in obeying Wolsey as the agent of the Pope, and that they must be punished. Of course this was a terrible piece of injustice, for the clergy had merely obeyed the king in accepting Wolsey as the Pope's representative.

6. The fact was that Henry meant to show the clergy that he was their master, and he also wished to make them accept him as head of the Church in place of the Pope. He therefore offered them pardon if they would recognize him as the Supreme Head of the Church of England “as far as the law of Christ allows,” and pay him the sum of £118,000. The clergy were forced to accept these terms, and then they received pardon for a crime of which they were innocent.

7. The House of Commons was eager to attack the

clergy, and in the next year it passed a Bill forbidding the payment of the fees given to the Pope by the clergy when appointed to their parishes. But even this threatened loss of income did not produce the divorce, so in 1533 Parliament passed an Act forbidding all appeals to Rome. Cranmer, as archbishop, was thus called upon to try the question of the divorce in his court.

8. The matter was soon settled. The king's marriage was declared to be contrary to the law of God, and therefore of no effect. Henry had already married Anne Boleyn, and the court declared his new marriage lawful. Anne was crowned shortly afterwards, but not a cheer was raised for her in the London streets. She and her family were hated by the great mass of the nation.

9. In the same year we find Thomas Cromwell becoming very powerful in Henry's councils. He was then a man of forty-eight years of age, who had been many things by turn and nothing long. As soldier, clerk, lawyer, merchant, and steward of Wolsey's household he had gained a very wide experience of men and things. Shakespeare, in his *Henry the Eighth*, gives Cromwell a far better character than he deserves. He is painted as very faithful to his fallen master, and is represented as taking service with the king at the earnest wish of Wolsey. As a matter of fact, Cromwell was a crafty self-seeker, who was only faithful to Wolsey as a means of advancing his own interests.

10. In the year 1534 the English Church was finally cut off from that of Rome by the famous Act of Supremacy. The power of the Pope in this realm was done away with altogether, and the king took his place, with even larger

powers than the Pope had ever possessed. At the same time another Act was passed, declaring every one who denied the king the title of “on earth Supreme Head of the Church of England” to be a traitor.

11. Then began a reign of terror, carried out with blood-thirsty zeal by Cromwell, whose spies were everywhere. Hundreds of innocent persons were sent to the scaffold, amongst them the monks of the Charterhouse; the Countess of Salisbury, niece of Edward the Fourth; the saintly Thomas More, Henry’s bosom friend of former years; and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester. On the Continent these murders were regarded with great horror, and the Pope declared Henry to be no longer king.

12. Parliament replied to the Pope by passing an Act for doing away with the smaller monasteries. A hasty inquiry had already shown that nothing but idleness and wickedness were to be found in them. When the reports were read in Parliament, the Commons shouted, “Down with them,” and Henry was asked to do away with all religious houses with an annual income of less than £200—that is, about £2,500 of modern money. We know now that things were not so black as they were painted, but we also know that the large number of monasteries had long been considered an evil. Henry the Fifth and Henry the Seventh had done away with some of them, and Wolsey had shut up a large number of small priories and convents in order to provide money for his colleges at Oxford and Ipswich.

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### 36. THE END OF THE MONASTERIES.

1. In 1536 the smaller monasteries were shut up, and their goods and incomes were seized by the king. Some of the older monks and nuns received gifts of money, but many others were forced out into the world to make a living—for which they were quite unfitted. The country people generally suffered great hardships, for they could no longer look for employment or assistance to the monasteries. It is said that in all some eighty thousand persons, or one in every fifty of the population, gained a livelihood by working for the monastic houses. The full extent of the suffering thus caused was seen twenty years later, when the number of beggars had increased a hundredfold.



THOMAS CROMWELL.

2. It is not surprising, therefore, that the shutting up of the smaller monasteries was followed by a great rising in the north, which was then, and for many years to come, the part of the kingdom least moved by new ideas. The most serious revolt took place in Yorkshire, and was known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace." In the ranks of the rebels were found not only those who suffered because the monasteries had been shut up, but many who found the landlords

to whom the monastic lands were given harsh and greedy masters. Abbot, noble, county gentleman, and peasant made common cause, and before long an army of thirty thousand "as tall men and well horsed and appointed as any men could be" was gathered together, under the leadership of a wise young lawyer named Robert Aske.

3. When the news reached London there was dismay at the Court. The royal army was moved to the north; but it was outnumbered, and its leader, the Duke of Norfolk, was forced to offer terms to the rebels. Envoys were sent to the king, asking for the undoing of all that had been done and for the punishment of Cromwell and Cranmer. Henry met them with fair but deceitful words. He promised a general pardon, a northern Parliament to be held at York, and the redress of various grievances. Trusting in the good faith of the king, the rebels went home. Then Cromwell struck hard at the nobles of the north; the highest among them were hanged or beheaded, and the victims included the heads of some of the great Yorkshire monasteries.

4. The next step was to sweep away the greater monasteries. Between 1538 and 1540 the good and bad alike were shut up, the monks were sent adrift, some of them with small pensions, and their lands and properties were seized by the king, who received in this way a sum equal to between fourteen and fifteen millions at the present day. This plunder, however, was of little advantage to the king. He had promised to found many new churches, bishoprics, and schools. Most of the money, however, went in bribes to the nobles and gentry. Six new bishoprics were founded,

and a number of grammar schools were erected, but nothing more was done.

5. Now that you understand why we have so many ruined abbeys in England, let us proceed with the story of the English Reformation. Year by year the Protestants were growing stronger in numbers and in power. The Bible was translated into English by royal order in 1538, and a chained copy was placed in every parish church. As soon as the English people began to read the Bible the number of Protestants grew greatly. Though Cranmer and Cromwell were both in favour of the reformers, Henry was never friendly to them. He got Parliament to pass a cruel Act punishing with death all who, after due warning, should speak or write against certain doctrines of the Catholic Church.

6. Meantime Cromwell had been growing steadily in power, and had been adding office to office. Nevertheless, his knell had rung, and the day was drawing near when his fall would be even more sudden and complete than Wolsey's had been. A royal marriage had led to Wolsey's downfall; strange to say, Cromwell's ruin was brought about in the same way.

7. Anne Boleyn had been accused of foul crimes and had been sent to the block in 1536. Henry had then married Jane Seymour, but his new wife had died in the following year. Once more Henry was a widower, and Cromwell, thinking to strengthen the Protestant cause in England, now persuaded his master to marry Anne, sister of the Protestant Duke of Cleves. Anne was not at all handsome, and when Henry saw her he was extremely angry with Cromwell. This was the beginning of the end.



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

8. The king suddenly cooled towards his minister, and Cromwell's enemies at once took advantage of his disgrace. At a council meeting the Duke of Norfolk called him a traitor, and tore the Order of the Garter from his neck. He was charged with trying to override the king's power, and condemned by Parliament without a trial. In July 1540 he met his death on the scaffold, "unwept, unhonoured, and unsung."

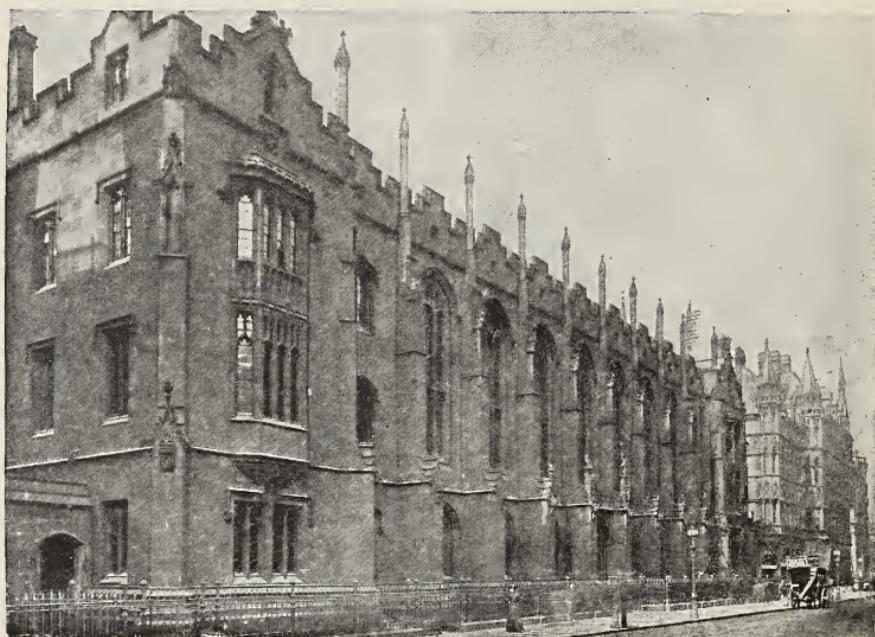
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### 37. A BOY KING.

1. Come with me to the great midland city of Birmingham. I dare say you know that it is the centre of the British hardware industries. Birmingham prides itself on being able to produce any metal article from a pin to a "Long Tom." As you walk through the streets, you imagine that Birmingham is a very modern city. Nevertheless, it dates back to early times. Some people say that its name is derived from the *ham* or home of the sons of a Saxon chieftain named Bern. Icknield Street, one of the famous Roman roads, runs through the suburbs, and Birmingham itself is mentioned in Domesday Book.

2. Birmingham has many fine buildings, and to one of them I wish to direct your special attention. It stands in New Street, and is known as King Edward the Sixth's Grammar School. Probably the name is familiar to you, for very likely there is a similar school with a similar name in your own town. In the reign of King Edward the Sixth no fewer than fifty-one schools of this kind were established in various towns up and down the country.

3. The money with which they were founded was obtained from part of the incomes of certain small religious houses and bodies which were done away with in the reigns of Henry the Eighth and Edward the Sixth. The Birmingham school, for example, received the estates of the Gild of Holy Cross, which owned lands in what is now the



KING EDWARD THE SIXTH'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM.

centre of the city. In Edward's time these estates produced £21 a year ; now they are worth £30,000 annually. This sum supports not only King Edward the Sixth's Grammar School, but also a group of other schools.

4. Let us learn something of the royal founder of these schools and the doings of his reign. Henry the Eighth left three children—one boy and two girls. The boy was

Edward, son of Jane Seymour ; the girls were Mary and Elizabeth, the daughters respectively of Catherine of Aragon and Anne Boleyn. Parliament allowed the king to make a will settling the order in which his children were to come to the throne. Edward was to reign first, and if he died without heirs Mary was to succeed. If she had no children, Elizabeth was to follow her on the throne ; and if Elizabeth in turn died without heirs, the crown was to go to the children of his favourite sister Mary, Duchess of Suffolk, and not, as it actually did, to the children of his elder sister, Margaret, who had married King James the Fourth of Scotland.

5. Edward was in his tenth year when his father died. He was a bright and promising lad, but very delicate, and was doomed to an early death. Nevertheless, he lived long enough to show a keen interest in affairs of state, and to prove himself possessed of his father's temper. During his short life he kept a diary, which is now preserved in the British Museum. In the pages of this book he shows himself thoughtful far beyond his years, and perhaps a little cold-blooded too. He was brought up in the Reformed faith, was fond of study, and was most carefully educated.

6. By this time I am sure that you have learnt that a boy-king or a girl-queen is a great misfortune to a country. Some person or group of persons has to take the place of the king and rule in his name. Such a state of things is bound to lead to all sorts of plotting and self-seeking on the part of ambitious, men who seek only their selfish ends and set aside the good of the nation. Edward's brief reign was no exception to the general rule.



### The Embarkation of Henry the Eighth at Dover.

*(From the picture said to be by Hans Holbein in Hampton Court Palace.)*

Hans Holbein (1497-1543), the reputed painter of this picture, was a German, and the greatest artist of his time. He went to London (1526) with a letter from Erasmus, introducing him to Sir Thomas More. In England he found ample employment as a portrait painter. For Henry the Eighth he painted several pictures. He was in England six years after the scene portrayed above took place; we may, therefore, assume that it is a truthful representation of the ships, armaments, and soldiers of the time.

7. Henry had arranged that until his son came of age a council of sixteen members should rule the country, the president being Edward Seymour, brother of Queen Jane and uncle of the young king. Seymour was a very ambitious man, and before long, by bribing his fellow-members of the council with estates and gifts of money, he got himself made Duke of Somerset and Protector of the realm. Until his fall in 1549, Somerset was the real king of England.

8. In 1548 Somerset issued the "First Book of Common Prayer," the forerunner of the Church of England Prayer Book at present in use. Formerly worship had been carried on entirely in the Latin tongue, but Henry the Eighth had ordered that the Litany and other parts of the Church service should be said in English. Now Somerset did away with the use of Latin altogether, and ordered that every part of the service should be said in English. Many old forms and ceremonies, however, were retained, and most of the people were well satisfied with the book. Cranmer took the leading part in preparing this Prayer Book, and many of the most beautiful prayers in it are from his pen.

9. Meanwhile, the government sent men to and fro removing images, pictures, stained glass, and other ornaments and furniture from the churches. This was done in such a violent and shameful manner that numbers of people, who otherwise were favourable to the "new worship," were greatly shocked. When they saw Somerset's friends loading themselves with the spoils of the churches, decking their tables with altar-cloths, and drinking out of chalices, they turned away from the "new worship" with loathing.

10. While the land was thus disturbed, Somerset plunged

the country into foreign war. He was anxious that Edward should be King of Great Britain, and he therefore tried to force the Scots to carry out a marriage treaty which they had made towards the end of Henry's reign. By this treaty Edward was to be married to the infant Queen of Scots, and thus the union of the two kingdoms was to be brought about.

11. Somerset, however, made a fatal mistake. He tried to force the Scots, and this is a policy which has always failed whenever tried. He marched an army northwards, and at Pinkie, on a hillside near Edinburgh, defeated the Scots with great slaughter. This was a strange way to go a-wooing, and it did not prosper. The five-year-old queen was hurried to France, where she was afterwards married to the Dauphin, or eldest son of the King of France. The only result of Somerset's action was to increase the hatred of the Scots for the English.

12. In the next year two rebellions broke out in England. The first was a rising of the old Catholic party in Devonshire. This the Protector put down with an iron hand. The second, however, was of quite a different character, and Somerset had some sympathy with the grievances which gave rise to it. Under a tanner named Robert Ket, the peasants were up in arms demanding an improvement in their social condition. They complained that the shutting up of the monasteries had thrown them out of work, and that they had now nowhere to go for help in poverty and in sickness. "The new landlords," they said, "were harsh, and robbed them of employment by turning the fields into sheep farms instead of ploughing them." Then, too, they

complained that the “waste” or common land, on which they had grazing and other rights, was being enclosed by the landlords, and that they were now shut out from its use. Other grievances were that the coins in use were only worth a fraction of their face value, and that the poor man could not get law and justice.

13. These were very real grievances, and men flocked to Ket’s banner until he had many men and guns. The Earl of Northampton, in command of the royal troops, was



SOMERSET HOUSE, LONDON.

Erected (1776-86) on the site of the Duke of Somerset’s Palace.

driven back, and Norwich was stormed. “The King of Norfolk and Suffolk,” as Ket styled himself, was only overcome when the Earl of Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, led a hired force of Italians and Germans against him. Ket was hanged, and the rebellion died out.

14. The use of these hired soldiers made Somerset still more unpopular. He had carried on a French war, but it had failed, and men considered this a blow to the national pride. Further, his spoiling of the churches had disgusted the people at large. While he was pulling down the

cloisters of St. Paul's in order to build his palace of Somerset House, the day of his doom was rapidly approaching. In the year 1549 the council took the Protectorship from him and sent him to the Tower ; but he was soon released, and became an ordinary member of the council.

15. His successor was Warwick, the son of one of the

two lawyers who had helped Henry the Seventh to plunder his people, and had been executed by Henry the Eighth. There was some good in Somerset, but Warwick was wholly selfish and greedy.

16. Finding the Protestant party the stronger in the State, Warwick took up its cause with zeal and vigour. A "Second Book of Common Prayer" was issued, and it was strongly Protestant in character. Warwick also tried to reform the coinage, but as he

would only give sixpence for the bad shillings in circulation his action was not popular. A treaty with France giving up Boulogne made him still more unpopular, and ere long he became the best-hated man in the country.

17. Somerset tried to regain his old power, but Warwick, who had now become Duke of Northumberland, brought



EDWARD VI.

(From a picture in the Royal Collection at Windsor.)

him to trial before a body of peers who were his enemies. He was found guilty, and the young king wrote in his diary on January 22, 1552: "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off upon Tower Hill between eight and nine o'clock in the morning."

18. Northumberland had obtained a great hold over the boy king, who looked up to him as to a father. He carefully removed from the council all who might oppose him, and then plotted to make himself supreme. His son, Lord Guilford Dudley, had married Lady Jane Grey, granddaughter of the Duchess of Suffolk, and therefore heiress to the throne, according to Henry the Eighth's will, after Mary and Elizabeth and their heirs. She was a clever, well-educated girl of sixteen, as good as she was beautiful. She had no



LADY JANE GREY.

ambition to be queen, and only lent herself to Northumberland's designs when she was told that the Protestant faith was in danger.

19. Northumberland now persuaded the young king to make a will naming Lady Jane Grey his successor. By bullying and bribery the members of the council were won over, and one by one they agreed to the will. Cranmer held out for some time, but Edward—now on his death-

bed—pleaded with him so earnestly that at last he too yielded.

20. While Edward was sinking into his grave, Northumberland was gathering troops and making ready to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne. On July 7, 1553, the young king died, and three days later the heralds proclaimed Queen Jane in London. Not a hat was tossed in the air, and not a cheer was raised. Northumberland tried to seize Mary, but she was already in safety in a Norfolk castle not far from the sea. London declared for her; the nobles and gentry flocked to her. Northumberland's troops dispersed, and he very soon found that there was no support for his daughter-in-law anywhere. With tears streaming down his cheeks he himself proclaimed Mary as queen, vainly hoping that by so doing he might save his head.

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### 38. PHILIP AND MARY.

1. Look at a map of Ireland. In the province of Leinster you will see two adjoining counties called respectively King's County and Queen's County. You will notice that the chief town of King's County is Philipstown, and that of Queen's County Maryborough. Why were these counties so called, and how did the county towns come by their names? The answers to these questions introduce us to that English queen who married a Spanish prince, and thus gave England a Spanish king.

2. Edward the Sixth died in his sixteenth year, and, according to the will of Henry the Eighth, Mary, the

daughter of Catherine of Aragon, came to the throne. Mary was a strict Catholic, full of faith in her creed. She found most of the people ready to welcome her, for they were not yet Protestants, and many of them had been disgusted by the doings of the reformers in her brother's short reign.

3. Mary entered London in August 1553, and her first act was to release the Catholic bishops Bonner and Gardiner, and to imprison certain Protestant bishops. Then she set herself steadily to undo the work of the Reformation. She firmly believed that she had been specially chosen by God to restore England to the power of the Pope. In carrying out this policy she destroyed Romanism in England.

4. At first she was not unpopular. When, however, she said that she was about to marry Philip of Spain, her people at once showed their anger. Philip's father was the great Emperor, Charles the Fifth, the most powerful monarch of his time. Not only was Charles master of Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and the newly-discovered regions in America, but Emperor of Germany as well. Now Charles was the great friend and servant of the Pope, the champion of the Catholics, and the bitter enemy of the Protestants. You will remember that he tried to crush Luther, but failed. He had, however, been more successful in the Netherlands, where the Reformation had made great strides. There he set up the Inquisition, and a bitter time of burning and torture began.

5. When the English Protestants learned that the son of this man was to be their king, they were greatly alarmed. Risings broke out in the west and centre of the country,

but were quickly put down. A rumour that the Spaniards were coming to conquer the realm roused the men of Kent, who marched on London under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt.

6. Fearing that the gates of the capital would be thrown open at his approach, Mary boldly rode to the Guildhall and begged the citizens of London to be loyal to her. They responded to her call, and when Wyatt reached Temple Bar he found himself almost alone. He was executed on Tower Hill, and shortly afterwards Lady Jane Grey and her husband suffered the same fate. The execution of the young, innocent girl may seem to us unnecessary, but Mary was led to believe that her throne would not be safe so long as the “eleven days’ queen” lived.

7. Having crushed her Protestant subjects, Mary now persuaded Parliament to agree to the Spanish marriage. Before it took place the two Houses of Parliament bent the knee before the Pope’s representative and were granted forgiveness. In the summer of the year 1554 the marriage took place; but Philip only remained in the country about a year, during which time he urged Mary to go on with that awful persecution which has blackened her name in the eyes of the British people.

8. Philip was soon disgusted with his sad, unlovely wife. He disliked England, and he hated the power of the Parliament. In September 1555 he quitted England, and only once, and then for a brief time, did he return. In October of the same year his father became a monk, and Philip reigned in his stead as the most powerful sovereign in Europe. In 1557 the Irish counties—King’s County

**Execution of Lady Jane Grey.**  
*(From the picture by Paul Delaroche.)*



and Queen's County—were formed in honour of Philip and Mary, and their names were respectively given to the county towns of the new divisions.

9. Deserted by her husband, and racked by painful disease, Mary now began to throw her whole heart into the work of stamping out Protestantism in England. Her father's cruel law was once more put into force, and burning at the stake was made the punishment for all who refused to submit to the Pope. She began by burning Bishop Hooper at Gloucester, and continued at the rate of about ten persons a month until her death.

10. Bishops Latimer and Ridley were executed together in front of Balliol College, Oxford, near the spot where the Martyrs' Memorial now stands. They met their cruel fate with the utmost courage. As the flames wrapped round them Latimer said, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley; play the man. We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England as, I trust, shall never be put out." The nation was greatly shocked at the queen's cruelty. Some one wrote to Bishop Bonner, "You have lost the hearts of twenty thousand that were rank Papists a year ago."

11. Archbishop Cranmer, who had helped Henry to divorce Catherine, Queen Mary's mother, and had taken a leading part in pushing forward the Reformation during the days of Edward the Sixth, was also a victim. He was sent to the Tower in 1553. When he was told that he must die, his courage, which was always feeble, gave way, and he tried to win his pardon by giving up all the opinions which he had formerly held. Nothing, however, could save him, and he was burnt at the stake in the year 1556. In his

last hours he showed wonderful courage, and thrust first into the flames the hand with which he had written the denial of his beliefs.

12. It is impossible not to be sorry for Mary. She was in feeble health, her husband had deserted her, and she was filled with anxious fears for the future of her kingdom. She honestly believed that she was doing the will of Heaven in burning and torturing those of her subjects who did not see eye to eye with her in matters of religion. Every week her people grew more and more discontented, and every week her health and spirits grew worse.

13. In spite of the pledges which Mary had given at her marriage, she now dragged England into the war against France which Philip was waging. The war ended in disaster, and "the chief jewel of the realm"—Calais—was captured. This "gateway into France" had long been neglected. The English garrison only numbered five hundred men, and owing to the carelessness of the Government it was without food and supplies. The French attack was not unexpected, and the governor had begged again and again for help, but this only arrived after Calais had fallen.

14. For two hundred years Calais had been in English hands, and though it cost much money to garrison and fortify, it had, at least, given us the command of the "narrow seas." Now England was without a foot of soil on French ground, and Englishmen grew bitterly angry at the thought. They felt themselves disgraced. Mary's health utterly gave way beneath the blow. "When I am dead," she cried, "you will find 'Calais' written on my heart!"



**Cramner at Traitors' Gate.**  
*(From the picture by F. Goodall, R.A., in South Kensington Museum.)*

15. Ten months later, on the eve of a great national revolt, the miserable Mary died. She had striven to set up Romanism once more in the land, but she had paved the way for Protestantism instead. During her short "reign of terror" she had sickened her subjects of the "thumb-screw and the stake for the glory of the Lord," and many of them were now ready to accept the teachings of the reformers. A great burst of joy swept over the country when Elizabeth, Mary's sister, was proclaimed queen.

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### 39. RIVAL QUEENS.

1. On page 198 you see the portraits of two of the most famous queens who ever lived. These portraits are the work of painters to whom the queens actually gave sittings. The first portrait is that of Queen Elizabeth. It is taken from the picture painted for the queen, and presented by her to Sir Henry Sidney. It still hangs at Penshurst, the old home of the Sidneys, near Tunbridge, in Kent.

2. The second portrait is that of Mary Queen of Scots. It is a drawing made by Francis Clouet, a French artist at the Court of France soon after Mary's husband, the King of France, had died. These rival queens were cousins, and sovereigns of neighbouring countries. They differed, however, in character and in faith; and in the end, by force of circumstances, the one became the jailer and the executioner of the other.

3. Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558. She found England a poor, dispirited country, beset with enemies and



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.  
(From the drawing by Francis Cloquet.)



QUEEN ELIZABETH.  
(From the portrait presented by her to Sir Henry Sidney.)

Rival Queens.

without an ally. The bloodshed and misgovernment of Mary's reign had brought the land to the verge of a revolt. A useless war with France had robbed her of her last Continental possession. England was helpless. She had neither army nor navy, nor the means of raising them. Her one hope lay in her new queen.

4. Elizabeth was a strange compound of virtues and failings. She inherited her father's bluff, hearty manner, his dauntless courage, his desire to be popular with his people, and his violent self-will. From her mother she derived her love of splendour, her gaiety, and her wit. She was a bold rider, a good shot, a graceful dancer, a skilled musician, and an excellent scholar. Nevertheless, she had many faults. She was vain, ungrateful, untruthful, and fond of double-dealing; but her good qualities—her strength of character, her cautious nature, and her sound judgment—were just the qualities which England then needed.

5. Elizabeth had been brought up as a Protestant, but she had no particular love for the new faith, and she wished to offend neither Catholic nor Protestant, but to set up an English Church to which both could belong. Mary's bishops, however, would have nothing to do with her. They refused to take part in her coronation, and this made her send for the Protestant bishops who had been exiled by Mary. Then Elizabeth took up her father's old position and declared herself head of the realm and Church alike, though she dropped the words "Head of the Church" from the royal title. A Prayer Book was issued, and was ordered to be used in all the churches; and a few years later, the "Thirty-nine Articles," which set forth the teachings of the Church of

England, were drawn up and adopted by Parliament. Thus the Church of England was established.

6. During Elizabeth's reign England was beset by many foes. Philip of Spain soon became a bitter enemy. He offered to marry Elizabeth, in order to keep his hold on England ; but though she hated him, she refused his offer with fair words, because she did not desire war. Philip was very angry, and Elizabeth, fearing that he might be dangerous, made peace with the King of France and left Calais in his hands. The time was fast arriving when Philip would be very dangerous indeed. In the meantime the storm-centre was Scotland. In order to explain how the trouble arose, we must take a rapid survey of the history of Scotland during the preceding two hundred and seventy years.

7. In Book IV. I told you how Scotland won back her independence at the battle of Bannockburn. After the death of King Robert the Bruce in 1329, the heir to the Scottish throne was David, a little boy of six years of age. Edward the Third saw his opportunity, and supported Edward Baliol, the exiled son of the "puppet king." Baliol took ship for Scotland, and with the help of a number of the nobles soon won the greater part of his father's realm. He was crowned at Scone, and young David Bruce had to flee to France for safety. Soon, however, the Scots rose against their new king, and chased him back to England. Then Edward marched northward, and at the battle of Halidon Hill, near Berwick, defeated the Scots with great slaughter.

8. Edward Baliol was placed on the throne for a second time, but his seat was very insecure, and after several years

of fighting he was finally driven from the kingdom. For the rest of his life he lived in England on the bounty of Edward. Eight years after the battle of Halidon Hill, when the Hundred Years' War required all Edward's attention, young David came into his own.

9. In 1346, as the ally of the French king, David invaded England, and, as you already know, was defeated and captured at Nevil's Cross. He was a captive in the Tower of London for eleven years, and only regained his freedom by promising to pay a ransom of one hundred thousand marks in ten years.

10. David died in 1371, and the crown passed to his nephew, Robert the Steward, the founder of the Stuart line, who was crowned at Scone as Robert the Second. At first he kept peace with England, but Border raids and skirmishes between the Scots and the English lords soon began, and continued throughout his reign. Robert died in 1390, and was followed by his son, who also took the name of Robert. He was a poor, half-witted person, and could not keep his nobles in order. In his time the power of the crown sank to nothing.

11. In 1405 young Prince James, the heir to the Scottish throne, was shipped off to France both for safety and in order to finish his education. When his ship was off Flamborough Head, in Yorkshire, it was captured by an English ship. The prince was carried to London, and afterwards taken to Windsor, where Henry the Fourth kept him as a hostage for the good behaviour of the Scots. Henry treated the young prince well, and gave him an excellent education. James was a clever man and a poet of

no mean renown. He recovered his freedom in 1424, and with his return a new period of Scottish history begins.

12. In the thirteen years of his short but remarkable reign he did wonders for Scotland. He restored order and justice; he attacked the Highland clans in their northern hills, and made them swear to be faithful to him. He also tried to curb his nobles, but they were too strong for him. A band of them burst into the royal chamber at Perth and left him dead upon his own hearthstone, with sixteen wounds in his body.

13. For the next fifty years the story of Scotland is the struggle between the kings and the great house of Douglas. Not till 1456 were the Douglases overthrown and the king really master of the land. Scotland cried aloud for peace, but the alliance with France was so close that every quarrel between France and England meant war on the Scottish border. At length, in the reign of Henry the Seventh, an attempt was made to bring about a better understanding between the two countries. A marriage was arranged between James the Fourth of Scotland and Margaret, Henry's eldest daughter. This marriage led, a century later, to the union of the Scottish and English crowns in the person of James the First, the successor to Elizabeth.

14. As you already know, Henry the Eighth in the early part of his reign revived the old quarrel with France, and by so doing called into life the old alliance between France and Scotland. While his brother-in-law's army was absent in Flanders James crossed the Tweed with the flower of Scotland. He was met by an English army at Flodden

Hill, and after a long and doubtful battle was defeated and slain.

15. James the Fifth was only two years of age when his father was killed, so again a child was heir to the throne. When he arrived at man's estate he too was hostile to England, and war once more broke out. At Solway Moss James the Fifth was utterly routed, and the defeat is said to have broken his heart. A few days before his death a little daughter was born to him. She was Mary, afterwards the famous Queen of Scots.

16. When Mary was five years of age, King Henry suggested that she should be married to his delicate little son, afterwards Edward the Sixth. The Scots refused, and an English army invaded Scotland and sacked Leith and Edinburgh. You already know that after Henry's death the Protector Somerset again crossed the border and defeated the Scots with great slaughter at Pinkie. The little queen was at once hurried to France, where she grew up at the court of the king, and became far more French than Scottish.

17. In 1554 Mary of Guise, the widow of James the Fifth and the mother of the young queen, became regent of Scotland. She was a French lady, and naturally did all in her power to assist her native land. Four years later she married her daughter, the Queen of Scots, to the Dauphin of France. He became king in the following year, and thus Mary was Queen both of Scotland and of France. Her husband died after about a year of happy married life, and then, at the age of nineteen, Mary set sail for her northern kingdom.

18. The new Queen of Scotland was an extremely beautiful woman and the most charming princess of her time. She was fond of music, dancing, laughter, and gaiety, yet she also loved risk and adventure and the clang of arms. Once, when riding to the north, she told her companions that she wished she were a man “to walk on the cawsey with a Glasgow buckler and a broadsword.” In statecraft she was in all respects the equal of Queen Elizabeth. Her beauty, grace of manner, and kindness of speech charmed all who came into contact with her. In later years she sinned much, but she suffered greatly; and even to this day she has champions who believe that she was more sinned against than sinning.

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## 40. A TRAGIC HISTORY.

1. Come with me to Edinburgh, the beautiful capital of Scotland. You already know that Edwin, one of the early Northumbrian kings, is said to have built a castle on a lofty basalt rock three miles south of the Firth of Forth, and twenty-two miles from the open sea. Around this fortress the city of Edinburgh has grown up. The most picturesque feature of Edinburgh is the old castle, which has borne the brunt of many sieges during its long and warlike history, and still keeps watch and ward over the northern capital. What is called the “Royal mile” extends from the castle to the palace of Holyrood, and almost every inch of the way there is something of historic interest.

**The Murder of Rizzio.**  
*(From the picture by John Opie, R.A., in the Art Gallery of the Corporation of London.)*



2. No visitor leaves Edinburgh without going to see Holyrood Palace and the adjoining Abbey. The palace is still a royal residence, and has been occupied by the King in recent years. The moment you see the old building the name of Mary Queen of Scots springs to your lips. You will be shown the very apartments which she occupied in almost the same state in which she left them. In the palace of Holyrood one of the most tragic scenes in all her tragic history took place.

3. Before we proceed with her story, however, I must tell you something of the state of the country immediately before Mary left her happy home in France and sailed with a heavy heart for Scotland. As you already know, the English Reformation was mainly the work of the Government. The Scottish Reformation, however, was the work of the people. Henry the Eighth, by force of his own will, had cut off the Church of England from that of Rome, and in the time of Elizabeth it became a Protestant Church. In Scotland the Government opposed the change; but it was at last forced to give way, for the great mass of the nation had become Protestants.

4. In 1557 the leading reformers in Scotland bound themselves to stand by one another to the death in support of their beliefs. They signed a bond which was called the Covenant. Two years later a second Covenant was drawn up and signed by all classes of the people. They pledged themselves not to obey the Pope, and they adopted the English Bible and the Prayer Book of Edward the Sixth. The guiding spirit of this movement was John Knox, a man of great worldly wisdom and a preacher of great power. He

was perfectly fearless, and his character is well set forth in the words which were spoken at his graveside: "Here lyeth a man who in his life never feared the face of man." You will see a slab marking his grave in the courtyard between St. Giles' Church and Parliament House in Edinburgh.

5. The burning of Walter Mill, a Protestant of over eighty years of age, roused the people to madness. The reformers gathered their forces, seized Edinburgh, and called a Parliament, which deposed the regent. Elizabeth sent them help, and the leaders of the Reformation became the chief power in the land. The power of the Pope was done away with, and the reformed religion became the State religion.

6. This had scarcely been done when Mary Queen of Scots returned to her native land. She found the Protestant party in power, and John Knox the most important of its leaders. Mary was a strong Romanist, and she intended to bring back the Roman Catholic religion to Scotland. In this she failed utterly, because almost the whole of her people were bitterly opposed to her. In 1565 she married her cousin, Henry Darnley, a Roman Catholic like herself.

7. While in France, Mary had put forth a claim to the English throne. Now she offered to give up that claim if Elizabeth would recognize her as heir to the English throne. Mary said that she asked for nothing more than her due. If Elizabeth should die without children, she would be the heir to the throne by right of birth, though not according to the will of Henry the Eighth. Elizabeth, however, would not recognize Mary as her successor.

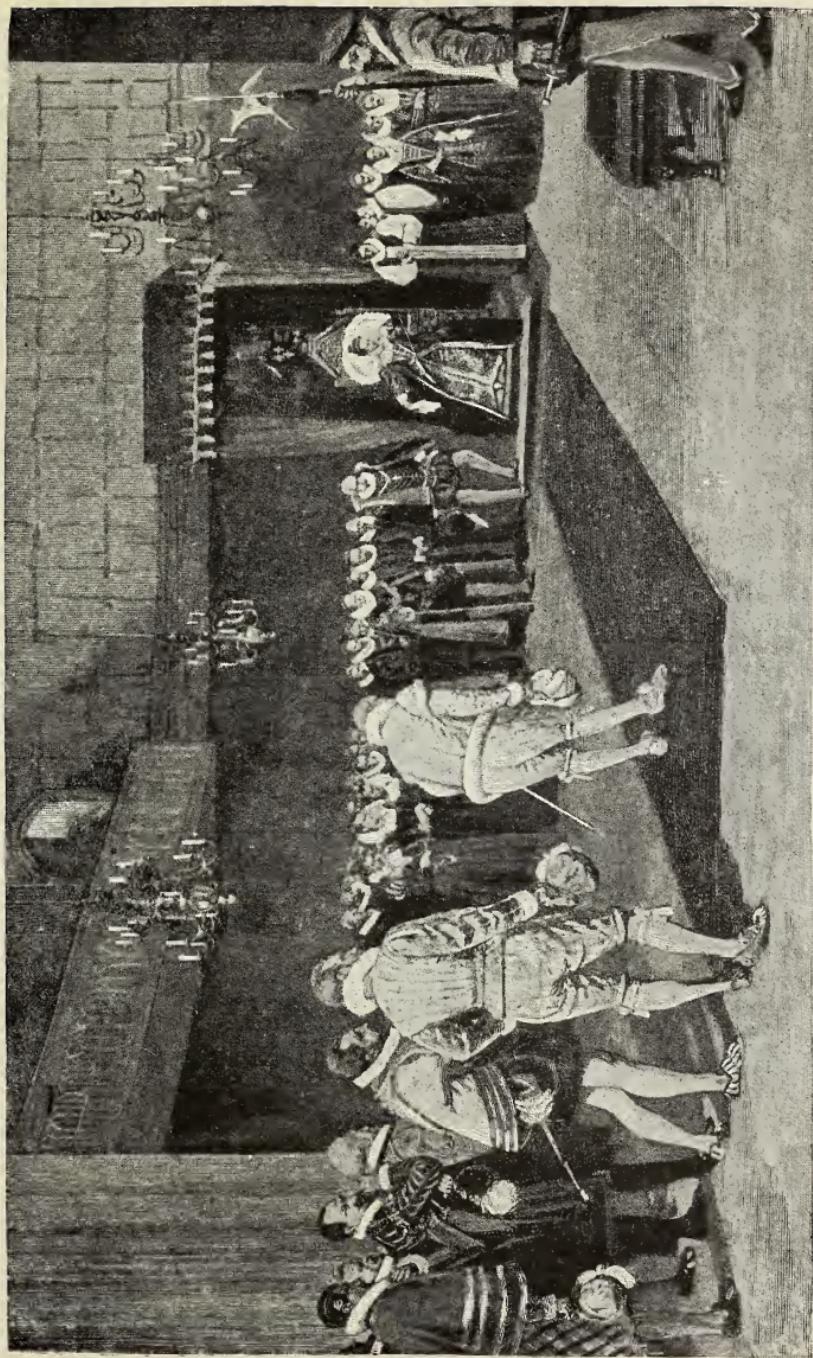
8. Soon after this there was a rising in Scotland. It

was put down, and for a time the queen triumphed. Then followed a bitter quarrel between Mary and Darnley, who was a vain and vicious man, and was very angry because his wife refused to allow him to rule in her name. Some of the nobles were jealous of an Italian named Rizzio, who acted as the queen's private secretary. These nobles came to an understanding with Darnley, and Rizzio was murdered in Holyrood Palace (March 1566). If you visit the palace, you will be shown the very room in which the savage deed was done.

9. Mary meant to have her revenge, and within a year of Rizzio's murder Darnley was killed in the lonely house of "Kirk of Field," which stood on the site of the present University of Edinburgh. No one knew exactly how he had met his death or who had killed him, but most people thought that the Earl of Bothwell, with whom the queen was now in love, had done the foul deed.

10. When Mary married Bothwell, some three months after her husband's death, her people were furious with her. They said that she had not only been a party to her husband's murder, but had actually rewarded the murderer by marrying him. The result was a rebellion, which ended in Mary's capture at Carberry Hill (June 1567). She was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, and was forced to give up the crown to her infant son James. Parliament gave the regency to Mary's half-brother, James, Earl of Moray.

11. The Protestant party now recovered its power, and became supreme. Within a year, however, Mary escaped, and a strong body of friends joined her. They were defeated at the battle of Langside, near Glasgow, and Mary



QUEEN ELIZABETH RECEIVING THE FRENCH AMBASSADOR AFTER ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY

*(From the picture by W. F. Yeames, R.A. By permission of Mrs. Coope.)*

was forced to seek the protection of Elizabeth, who refused to see her, but would not allow her to return to Scotland. The Scots demanded that she should be given up to them, and Elizabeth appointed judges to inquire into the question of her guilt. Nothing came of the trial, but Mary was not allowed to go free. For nearly nineteen years she was held captive in England, being moved about from castle to castle.

12. The contest between Catholics and Protestants on the Continent was now at its height. In the Netherlands the long persecution of the people and the attempt to rob them of their liberties roused a fierce rebellion. Philip sent the Duke of Alva with ten thousand men to the Low Countries, and then began an awful series of massacres which have made his name infamous in history.

13. The French Protestants, or Huguenots as they were called, had been in arms since 1562, and now the persecuted in both countries begged Elizabeth to send them help. Elizabeth, however, would not dispatch a single soldier, though large numbers of English and Scottish volunteers lent their swords to the cause. She knew that as long as France and Spain were busy putting down civil war England was safe from attack. Secretly, however, she sent money to the Huguenots, and allowed those who fled from the Netherlands to take shelter in England. Openly she would do nothing.

14. In 1569 news arrived that the Pope was about to depose Elizabeth, and declare Mary Queen of England. Almost immediately there was a great rising of the Catholics of the north. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland marched into Durham, the Bible and Prayer Book

were torn to pieces, and Mass was once more said in Durham Cathedral. The majority of the Catholics, however, did not join in the revolt. As the rebels received little support they dispersed, and the leaders paid the penalty either in death or ruin. Next year the Pope deposed



MARY GOING TO EXECUTION.

Elizabeth. While most of the Catholics remained loyal, some of the more violent began to plot against the queen.

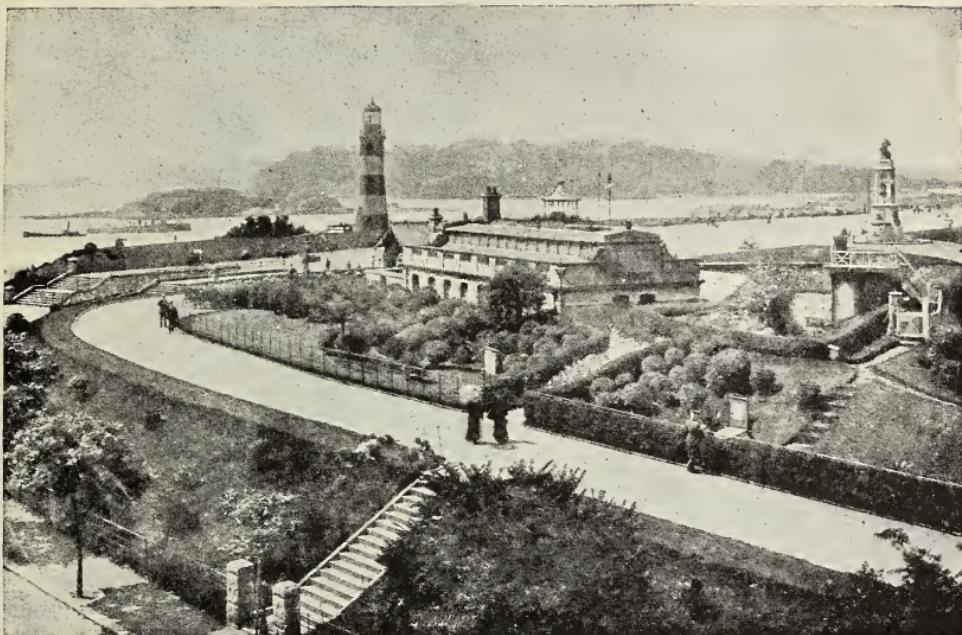
15. One of these plots, known as the "Ridolfi Plot," from the name of an Italian banker who played an important part in it, was headed by the Duke of Norfolk, who undertook to

seize Elizabeth and marry Mary. Some of Norfolk's papers, however, fell into the hands of Cecil, Elizabeth's great minister, and the whole plot was exposed. Norfolk was beheaded, and the nation cried aloud for Mary's blood.

16. These constant plots against the life of the queen caused Parliament to pass a number of harsh laws against the Catholics, and especially against the priests, who were secretly trying to re-establish Romanism in the land, and were encouraging plots in favour of Mary. It is said that during Elizabeth's reign about one hundred and twenty priests were either put to death or perished in jails.

17. Elizabeth was still determined not to interfere openly in affairs on the Continent. On St. Bartholomew's Day 1572 there was an awful massacre of twenty thousand French Protestants. A thrill of horror ran through England and aroused a fierce cry for war ; but Elizabeth would do nothing, though her court went into mourning, and she received the French ambassador with marked coldness. At length, in 1583, a great plot was unmasked. France and Spain were to unite in an invasion of England ; the English Catholics were to rise ; Elizabeth was to be murdered, and Mary was to ascend the throne. Then Elizabeth declared war against Spain, and she never did a more popular act.

18. Three years later the last Catholic plot was foiled in the very nick of time, and Elizabeth's ministers urged her to bring Mary to trial for her share in it. Very unwillingly Elizabeth agreed. Mary was tried by a body of peers, found guilty, and in February 1587 was executed at Fotheringay Castle. She died with great dignity and courage, declaring herself a martyr for her faith.



PLYMOUTH HOE.

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**41. FRANCIS DRAKE—"SEA-DOG."**

1. Here is a picture of Plymouth Hoe as it is to-day. You see that it is laid out as a pleasure ground, with lawns, flower-beds, and shrubberies. Yonder is the upper portion of Smeaton's Eddystone Lighthouse, which was taken down and removed to its present position when the rocks beneath it became undermined by the sea. Here is a still more famous monument. It represents that great "sea-dog," Sir Francis Drake, the boast and pride of Plymouth, though he was born at Tavistock, fifteen miles away.

2. No British boy or girl can look on this statue and think of the hero whom it represents without feeling the

pulses stirred as with the sound of a trumpet. Drake was the greatest of Elizabethan seamen, and his story is more interesting than the finest romance ever penned. In him we see that spirit of restless energy and dauntless courage which Englishmen showed in all parts of the world during the brave days of the Virgin Queen.

3. Here, on Plymouth Hoe, we stand on historic ground. What farewells to stout-hearted mariners have been waved from these grassy slopes ! What shouts of welcome have been raised as they sailed up the Sound laden with spoils and honours ! What tears have been shed when they never returned at all ! Nearly all the great seamen of Elizabeth's day sailed from Plymouth on their voyages of exploration.

4. Wherever you go in Plymouth you find memorials of Francis Drake, such as the fine statue which we have already seen, the stained-glass windows in the Guildhall, and his portrait in the Council Chamber. Drake was born about the year 1540 at Crowndale Farm, near Tavistock. His father was a poor man with twelve children, and young Francis had to go out into the world to earn his living at an early age. He shipped as apprentice on a little coasting vessel, and was at once in his element.

5. By his diligence and attention young Drake so won the heart of the master of the coasting craft that on the old man's death he found himself the owner of the ship. He continued in the coasting trade for some years, and when about fifteen or sixteen years of age made one or two voyages to Guinea and the Spanish main.

6. About the year 1567, we first hear of him in connection with his kinsman John Hawkins, who afterwards



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

became chief treasurer of the navy. At the time of which we are speaking, John Hawkins was fitting out an expedition for what we now consider to be a thoroughly wicked business—namely, the slave trade. The expedition ended in disaster. Only two ships—one of them Drake's—escaped the Spaniards, who attacked the squadron as it lay in harbour. On reaching England, Drake tried to get the Government to obtain repayment for his losses from Spain, but all to no purpose; and then he made up his mind to repay himself.

7. Accordingly he fitted out an expedition of two small

ships, carrying three pinnaces and seventy-three men. With these he sailed for Nombre de Dios, where after a sharp skirmish, in which Drake was severely wounded in the thigh, he found himself in possession of an enormous stack of silver bars, seventy feet long, ten feet wide, and ten feet high, as well as a vast store of gold, pearls, and jewels. He had, as he said, brought his men "to the mouth of the Treasure of the World." He could not, however, carry off his prize, and when he fainted from loss of blood, his men carried him down to the boats and set sail.

8. I cannot tell you in detail of the rest of his adventures during this remarkable voyage. He captured a large Spanish ship right inside the harbour of Cartagena, and its cargo of plate and pieces of eight was the first repayment for his losses. Then with eighteen men he landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and, guided by the natives, marched right across it. "As they reached the highest point of the dividing ridge his guides pointed out a tree from whose top, as they told Drake, he might see the North Sea, from which he had come, and the South Sea, towards which he was going. Drake ascended the tree by steps cut in the trunk, and—first of known Englishmen—saw the sea" (the Pacific Ocean), and "besought Almighty God of His goodness to give him life and leave to sail once in an English ship in that sea."

9. After sacking a city, capturing a mule train laden with nearly thirty tons of silver, and carrying his treasure in rafts to his ships, he set sail for England. With a fair wind he made the Scilly Islands in twenty-three days, and arrived at Plymouth on Sunday, August 9, 1573, during sermon time, when "the news of Drake's return did so speedily pass over

all the church, and surpass their minds with desire and delight to see him, that very few or none remained with the preacher."

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## 42. FRANCIS DRAKE—CIRCUMNAVIGATOR.

1. Drake had not carried off the "Treasure of the World," but he had looted enough Spanish gold and silver to make him a rich man. He was already known to the Secretary of State, and had related his adventures to the queen. Now, it must always be remembered that England at this time was at peace with Spain, and that in strict law Drake and his fellows were nothing more or less than pirates.

2. King Philip was constantly complaining of them, and Elizabeth constantly replied that she gave them no encouragement. Yet secretly she was hand in glove with them, the partner in their expeditions, and the sharer in their unlawful spoils. It is said that she encouraged Drake to make his great voyage of 1577-80. No doubt she was not displeased that her seamen should cut off those supplies of gold and silver which enabled the Spanish king to become the master of Europe.

3. Drake's squadron, consisting of his own ship, the *Pelican* (100 tons), the *Elizabeth* (80 tons), and three smaller vessels, not one of them larger than a small coasting ship of our own day, set sail from Plymouth early in December 1577. Not until the ships had passed the Cape Verde Islands did the crews learn that they were to sail the Pacific, and to plunder the Spanish towns along the coasts of Chili and

Peru. The Spaniards had left these ports unfortified, never dreaming that the English would be daring enough to pass the dreaded Straits of Magellan, and venture into the Pacific Ocean.

4. By the time the straits were reached Drake's squadron was reduced to three ships. In sixteen days the cold and desolate windings of the straits were passed in safety ; but no sooner had the squadron entered the Pacific than a furious storm swept down upon it. One ship went down with all hands, and another, losing sight of the admiral's ship, steered for home. Thus Drake, with one vessel, now rechristened the *Golden Hind*, and eighty men, found his prayer fulfilled. He was sailing the Pacific Ocean in an English ship.

5. The storm lasted fifty-two days. When at last the violence of the wind abated, he sailed north again, sweeping the unguarded coast, plundering treasure ships, and filling his hold with silver and gold. At Callao he heard that a certain treasure galleon had sailed for Panama. Hastening after her, he easily captured her, and seized twenty-six tons of silver, eighty pounds of gold, thirteen chests of money, and a store of jewels and precious stones, worth in all from £150,000 to £200,000.

6. Drake, thinking "her Majesty would rest contented with this service," was now ready to return to England. With his heavily-laden ship he feared to tempt the winds and waves of the Straits of Magellan, so he determined to sail westward and ever westward until he had encircled the globe. After refitting, he sailed on and on, calling at various islands until, after more than seven months' voyage, he reached Java. He passed the Cape of Good Hope on

June 15, 1580, and on the twenty-sixth of September in the same year the *Golden Hind* sailed up Plymouth Sound, and cast anchor in the Catwater amidst a very tumult of rejoicing.

7. Francis Drake was at once the most popular man in England. He had sailed round the world—ay, and he was the first Englishman to do it. Moreover, he had brought home the richest cargo of booty ever landed. With a single ship he had plundered the hated Spaniard of his ill-gotten gains, and had claimed for his land the right to penetrate all the seas of the world, in spite of Pope or king. Drake's wonderful success sent English ships to all parts of the world. From this moment the British empire was in the making.

8. Philip of Spain, angered and humbled, had already demanded the punishment of the man who was, in the eyes of the Spaniards, “the master thief of the unknown world.” The queen had promised to hang Drake on his return ; but now that the land was ringing with his fame, she discovered that Philip had been aiding the rebels in Ireland, and that Drake's plunder of his ships was fair warfare and not piracy at all.

9. So the *Golden Hind* was brought round to Deptford, and the queen, wearing a dress stiff with stolen gold, went on board the first ship that had gone round the world and knighted the first man who had lived to complete the voyage. The *Golden Hind* became as famous as Nelson's *Victory* is to-day. For many years she was preserved at Deptford, and to dine in her cabin was a fashionable amusement. Out of the remains of her hull a chair was made, which is still preserved in the Bodleian Library at Oxford.

**43. THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA.**

1. The remainder of Drake's life need not delay us long. Five years after his return from his great voyage he sailed again for the West Indies, and once more crippled Philip's power by capturing and plundering several of his richest settlements. On his return he found England in great peril. The Catholic world, horrified at the execution of Mary Queen of Scots, had raised a great cry for vengeance, and Philip of Spain, urged by the Pope, undertook the punishment of England.

2. Philip was then the most powerful monarch of Europe. His own country was poor enough, but it furnished him with multitudes of daring soldiers. He was master of the fairest and richest provinces of Italy and the great manufacturing country of Flanders. Besides this, he held vast possessions in the New World, from which he drew, when Drake and the other "sea-dogs" would let him, vast stores of gold, jewels, and silver. As the most powerful monarch of Europe and the champion of the Pope, Philip, of all men, was the fit and proper person to avenge the poor Queen of Scots.

3. Philip saw clearly that unless England was crushed he could not retain his empire in the New World. Further, his Flemish subjects were in desperate revolt against him, and English troops had now joined them. The two great sources of his wealth were likely to be dried up, unless he made a great effort to overwhelm his foe. He at once prepared his Invincible Armada; and English seamen immediately began to harry the Spaniards.

4. In command of a strong fleet Drake, in 1587, entered the harbour of Cadiz, and, in his own pleasant phrase, “singed the King of Spain’s beard” by burning ten thousand tons of shipping. By doing so he delayed the sailing of the Armada for a whole year. Over and over again he besought the queen not to wait for the Armada to arrive, but to seek it out and destroy it before it came into the Channel at all. This excellent advice was not followed, because Elizabeth could not be prevailed upon to spend her money freely, even at this crisis.

5. In the spring of the next year the Armada set sail for the coast of the Netherlands, where the Duke of Parma was to join it with thirty thousand men. It consisted of one hundred and thirty vessels, half of them being galleons of the largest size. The ships were manned by eight thousand sailors, and overcrowded with twenty thousand soldiers. They were ill-found and ill-provisioned, and were commanded by an admiral who hardly knew a mast from an anchor. England had only thirty-four ships in the royal fleet, but almost every seaport and many rich merchants and noblemen fitted out craft to fight the Spaniard. Their crews numbered eighteen thousand men, all good seamen.

6. On shore Protestant and Catholic laid aside their religious differences, and stood shoulder to shoulder in defence of their threatened land. The Lord High Admiral of the English fleet, Lord Howard of Effingham, was himself a Catholic. Drake was vice-admiral, and almost every “sea-dog” of note commanded a ship.

7. Now let us go back to the old seaport of Plymouth for a moment. Its most glorious memory is that of the

famous game of bowls played to a finish on the Hoe when Captain Fleming brought the news that his crew had sighted the Spaniards. The cool self-confidence of Drake, who assured his comrades that there was time to finish the game and thrash the Spaniards too, was reflected in every man in the fleet. Up to quite modern times the corporation of Plymouth held an annual feast, and the bells of the old Church of St. Andrew rang out, to celebrate the great day when the Lord High Admiral and his captains embarked for the overthrow of the Invincible Armada.

8. There is no need to tell in detail the story of the gallant fight. On the nineteenth of July the sails of the Armada were seen off Plymouth, and instantly beacons flared out a wild alarm "from Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay." As the Armada, in crescent shape, passed by, Howard chased the great fleet and hung on to its rear, "plucking out its feathers one by one." For a week this running fight was kept up. The well-handled English ships fired four shots to the Dons' one, and galleon after galleon was sunk or driven ashore. Off Calais the fleets faced each other, and a long day's battle was fought. On the night of Sunday, the twenty-eighth of July, eight fire-ships were lighted and sent down with the tide upon the Spanish line.

9. Then panic seized the Dons, and they fled northwards, hoping to reach Spain through the North Sea and round the Orkney Islands. The English closely followed them, and "the Lord sent His wind and scattered them." Only fifty-three shattered vessels out of that proud fleet returned to Spain. Thousands of Spanish corpses strewed

the shores of the Orkneys, the Western Islands, and the Atlantic coasts of Ireland. Scarcely a noble family in Spain but mourned a relative.

10. After the defeat of the Armada, England stood without a rival. Drake was eager to smite Spain hip and thigh, and drive her from the seas. Elizabeth, however, could not be persuaded to let him do so. Nevertheless, the Spanish settlements all over the world were harried as they had never been before. In 1592 Drake sacked Corunna, burned Vigo, and tried to take Lisbon. For the next few years he followed peaceful pursuits ashore.

11. In 1595 he sailed for the last time to the West Indies, along with his old and trusty kinsman and comrade, Sir John Hawkins. The expedition, however, was not successful. The Spaniard was not to be caught napping, and Drake wore himself out in a fruitless task. On January 28, 1596, he died on board his ship off Porto Bello. His body was enclosed in a leaden coffin, and committed to the deep a few miles to seaward.

“The waves became his winding-sheet, the waters were his tomb;  
But for his fame, the ocean sea was not sufficient room.”

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#### 44. LOOKING BACKWARD.

1. Before we close this book, let us, like wayfarers on a hilltop, pause awhile and look back over the road which we have travelled together. Afar off, we see the Celt fall before the legions of Rome. For four long centuries Britain lies under the yoke of the conqueror, and at the end of that time the land bears all the marks of civilization.



**The Defeat of the Armada.**  
*(From the picture by P. de Loutherbourg, R.A., in the gallery of Greenwich Hospital.)*

2. Unskilled in war and unfamiliar with weapons, the Britons are well-nigh helpless when the stern grip of Rome is relaxed and they are left to defend themselves. They fall a prey to certain uncivilized tribes of Northern Europe, men fearless of death, and schooled in courage and enterprise by their seafaring life. Britannia becomes England, and the Briton finds a refuge only in the mountains of the west.

3. Then we see these English tribes living in their new land the life of their old home. They set up their townships, their moots, their own system of local government, traces of which still remain among us. In course of time the tribes unite into kingdoms, and the story of our land is mainly the struggle of these kingdoms for mastery. Then comes a mild and softening influence on the rough heathen English. By the zeal of a few Scottish monks and the pious care of Pope Gregory, the people become Christians, and begin to share in the light and learning which the gospel brings.

4. The struggle between the kingdoms still goes on, and there are signs that they will soon be unified under one ruler. Then come the onslaughts of fierce kinsmen still in the heathen stage, and after many years of strife and misery these Danes settle down in the land and even rule it for a time. England becomes one kingdom under one king, and the Danes as years go by become English.

5. Now comes the last successful invasion which our island ever knew. The Normans, the most civilized race of their time, men who also are kinsmen of the English, seize the land and form its ruling class. These Normans set up a new system known as feudalism: all rights are

now connected with the holding of land, and the landless man is nought.

6. The new kings strive to rule on both sides of the Channel. By doing so they weaken themselves; and as their power wanes, the barons wax in strength. At length they are able to force from the worst of our kings that great statement of national rights known as *Magna Charta*. In the next reign the foundations of the British Parliament are laid.

7. The ambition of warlike rulers brings about the woeful wars with France, which drag on for a century. The people suffer from heavy taxes; but some good comes out of the evil. The kings become more and more dependent upon their subjects for grants of men and money, and thus the people are the better able to bargain for their freedom.

8. In spite of war, manufactures thrive, trade extends, the towns grow in population, and the great middle class of townsmen becomes important. Then, too, the Great Plague, by reducing the ranks of the labourers, breaks down serfdom, raises wages, and multiplies the number of small landowners and tenant farmers.

9. The terrible Wars of the Roses then begin, and continue for thirty years. The nobles well-nigh perish, and when the wars come to an end the only great check on the power of the king has been removed. The barons have destroyed themselves; the middle classes are not yet strong enough to show their power; and so during the sixteenth century the English sovereigns are absolute masters of the realm.

10. Meanwhile the education of the Commons is begin-

ning. The “new learning” from Greece and Rome opens up to them the boundless stores of ancient wisdom, and the new world-knowledge of the West fills their minds with eager curiosity. Men are no longer willing to receive the teachings of the Church without question. When Henry the Eighth quarrels with the Pope the nation is eager to support him in breaking the bonds of Rome. Under his son, Edward the Sixth, the Protestants gain the upper hand ; under his daughter Mary the old faith is restored for a time ; but in the “spacious days” of Elizabeth the Church of England is firmly established.

11. The new learning produces its finest flower in the great writers who adorn Elizabeth’s reign and remain as its greatest glory. The “new worship” indirectly leads Drake and Hawkins and the other sea-dogs to the shores of the New World, where Spain, the champion of the Pope, holds sway. The “Spanish Main” becomes the training school of our sailors, and the sea-dogs point the way to the merchant adventurers, who establish English trade throughout the known world.

12. Feeble attempts at founding colonies are made during the reign of the Virgin Queen ; and though they fail, we may see in them the beginnings of that mighty empire in which we rejoice to-day. With the defeat of the Invincible Armada, Britain begins to claim her title as Mistress of the Seas. At the close of the period dealt with in this book, England stands at a height amongst the nations of the world which she has never attained before.

# Poetry for Recitation.

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## I. THE DISCOVERER OF THE NORTH CAPE.

*[The adventurous and daring spirit by which "Britannia rules the waves" is well shown in this account of a voyage of discovery undertaken about 890 A.D. Alfred's character as a truth-teller, patron of arts and sciences, and author, is well brought out in the story told below.]*

1. Othere, the old sea-captain,  
    Who dwelt in Helgoland,\*  
To King Alfred, the Lover of Truth,  
    Brought a snow-white walrus tooth,  
        Which he held in his brown right hand.
2. His figure was tall and stately,  
    Like a boy's his eye appeared ;  
His hair was yellow as hay,  
    But threads of a silvery gray  
        Gleamed in his tawny beard.
3. Hearty and hale was Othere,  
    His cheek had the colour of oak ;  
With a kind of laugh in his speech,  
    Like the sea-tide on a beach,  
        As unto the king he spoke.

\* Heligoland (Holy Land), a small island in the North Sea, off the mouth of the Elbe, formerly belonging to Britain, now to Germany.

4. And Alfred, King of the Saxons,  
     Had a book upon his knees,  
     And wrote down the wondrous tale  
     Of him who was first to sail  
         Into the Arctic Seas.

5.“So far I live to the northward,  
     No man lives north of me ;  
     To the east are wild mountain-chains,  
     And beyond them meres and plains ;  
         To the westward all is sea.

6.“So far I live to the northward,  
     From the harbour of Skeringes-hale,  
     If you only sailed by day,  
     With a fair wind all the way,  
         More than a month would you sail.

7.“I own six hundred reindeer,  
     With sheep and swine beside ;  
     I have tribute from the Finns—  
     Whalebone and reindeer skins,  
         And ropes of walrus-hide.

8.“I ploughed the land with horses ;  
     But my heart was ill at ease,  
     For the old seafaring men  
     Came to me now and then,  
         With their sagas \* of the seas,—

\* Old Norse legends written in poetry.

9.“Of Iceland and of Greenland,  
    And the stormy Hebrides,  
And the undiscovered deep :  
I could not eat nor sleep  
    For thinking of those seas.

10.“To the northward stretched the desert.  
    How far I fain would know ;  
So at last I sallied forth,  
And three days sailed due north,  
    As far as the whale-ships go.

11.“To the west of me was the ocean,  
    To the right the desolate shore ;  
But I did not slacken sail  
For the walrus or the whale,  
    Till after three days more.

12.“The days grew longer and longer,  
    Till they became as one ;  
And southward through the haze  
I saw the sullen blaze  
    Of the red midnight sun.

13.“And then uprose before me,  
    Upon the water’s edge,  
The huge and haggard snape  
Of that unknown North Cape,  
    Whose form is like a wedge.

14.“ The sea was rough and stormy,  
    The tempest howled and wailed,  
And the sea-fog, like a ghost,  
Haunted the dreary coast ;  
    But onward still I sailed.

15.“ Four days I steered to eastward,  
    Four days without a night ;  
Round in a fiery ring  
Went the great sun, O King,  
    With red and lurid light.

\*                   \*                   \*                   \*

16.“ And now the land,” said Othere,  
    “ Bent southward suddenly,  
And I followed the curving shore,  
And ever southward bore  
    Into a nameless sea.

17.“ And there we hunted the walrus,  
    The narwhale, and the seal ;  
Ha ! 'twas a noble game !  
And like the lightning's flame  
    Flew our harpoons of steel.

18.“ There were six of us altogether,  
    Norsemen of Helgoland ;  
In two days and no more  
We killed of them threescore,  
    And dragged them to the strand ! ”

19. Here Alfred, the Truth-teller,  
 Suddenly closed his book,  
 And lifted his blue eyes,  
 With doubt and strange surmise  
 Depicted in their look.

20. And Other, the old sea-captain,  
 Stared at him wild and weird ;  
 Then smiled, till his shining teeth  
 Gleamed white from underneath  
 His tawny, quivering beard.

21. And to the King of the Saxons,  
 In witness of the truth,  
 Raising his noble head,  
 He stretched his brown hand, and said,  
 “ Behold this walrus-tooth ! ”

H. W. LONGFELLOW.

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## 2. THE SEA-KING'S GRAVE.

*[This poem breathes in every line the spirit of the old Vikings.]*

1. High over the wild sea-border, on the farthest downs to  
 the West,  
 Is the green grave-mound of the Norseman, with the  
 yew-tree grove on its crest.  
 And I heard in the winds his story, as they leapt up salt  
 from the wave,  
 And tore at the creaking branches that grow from the  
 sea-king's grave ;

Some son of the old-world Vikings, the wild sea-wandering lords,  
Who sailed in a snake-prowed galley, with a terror of twenty swords.  
From the fiords of the sunless winter, they came on an icy blast,  
Till over the whole world's sea-board the shadow of Odin passed,  
Till they sped to the inland waters and under the Southland skies,  
And stared on the puny princes with their blue victorious eyes.  
And they said he was old and royal, and a warrior all his days,  
But the king who had slain his brother lived yet in the island ways ;  
And he came from a hundred battles, and died in his last wild quest,  
For he said, "I will have my vengeance, and then I will take my rest."

2. He had passed on his homeward journey, and the king of the isles was dead ;  
He had drunken the draught of triumph, and his cup was the isle-king's head ;  
And he spoke of the song and feasting, and the gladness of things to be,  
And three days over the waters they rowed on a waveless sea ;

Till a small cloud rose to the shoreward, and a gust broke  
out of the cloud,  
And the spray beat over the rowers, and the murmur of  
winds was loud  
With the voice of the far-off thunders, till the shudder-  
ing air grew warm,  
And the day was as dark as at even, and the wild god  
rode on the storm.  
But the old man laughed in the thunder as he set his  
casque on his brow,  
And he waved his sword in the lightning, and clung to  
the painted prow.  
And a shaft from the storm-god's quiver flashed out from  
the flame-flushed skies,  
Rang down on his war-worn harness and gleamed in his  
fiery eyes,  
And his mail and his crested helmet, and his hair and his  
beard burned red ;  
And they said, "It is Odin calls ;" and he fell, and they  
found him dead.

3. So here, in his war-guise armoured, they laid him down  
to his rest,  
In his casque with the reindeer antlers, and the long  
gray beard on his breast ;  
His bier was the spoil of the islands, with a sail for a  
shroud beneath,  
And an oar of his blood-red galley, and his battle-brand  
in the sheath.

And they buried his bow beside him, and planted the  
grove of yew,  
For the grave of a mighty archer, one tree for each of  
his crew,  
Where the flowerless cliffs are sheerest, where the sea-  
birds circle and swarm,  
And the rocks are at war with the waters, with their  
jagged gray teeth in the storm ;  
And the huge Atlantic billows sweep in, and the mists  
enclose  
The hill with the grass-grown mound where the Norse-  
man's yew-tree grows.

RENNELL RODD : *Poems in Many Lands.*



### 3. THE NORMAN BARON.

[*This poem well illustrates the picture on page 65, which shows a Norman baron on his deathbed giving freedom to his serfs. It is greatly to the credit of the Church that the monks seized the opportunity—as related in this poem—of securing the freedom of the down-trodden peasants.*]

1. In his chamber, weak and dying,  
Was the Norman baron lying ;  
Loud without the tempest thundered,  
And the castle-turret shook.
  
2. In this fight was Death the gainer,  
Spite of vassal and retainer,  
And the lands his sires had plundered,  
Written in the Doomsday Book.

3. By his bed a monk was seated,  
Who in a humble voice repeated  
Many a prayer and paternoster \*  
From the missal † on his knee.
4. And, amid the tempest pealing,  
Sounds of bells came faintly stealing,  
Bells that, from the neighbouring cloister, ‡  
Rang for the Nativity. §
5. In the hall the serf and vassal  
Held that night their Christmas wassail ; ||  
Many a carol, old and saintly,  
Sang the minstrels and the waits. ¶
6. And so loud these Saxon gleemen  
Sang to slaves the songs of freemen,  
That the storm was heard but faintly  
Knocking at the castle-gates.
7. Till at length the lays they chanted  
Reached the chamber, terror-haunted,  
Where the monk, with accents holy,  
Whispered at the baron's ear.
8. Tears upon his eyelids glistened,  
As he paused awhile and listened ;  
And the dying baron slowly  
Turned his weary head to hear.

\* Our Father.

† Mass book.

‡ Monastery.

§ Birth of Jesus Christ

|| From "Waes hael," meaning "Health to you." Here used to signify a feast or revel.

¶ Musicians who go about at Christmas time playing Christmas hymns and songs.

9. "Wassail for the kingly Stranger  
 Born and cradled in a manger !  
 King like David, Priest like Aaron,  
 Christ is born to set us free ! "

10. And the lightning showed the sainted  
 Figures on the casement painted ;  
 And exclaimed the shuddering baron,  
 " Miserere, Domine ! " \*

11. In that hour of deep contrition †  
 He beheld, with clearer vision,  
 Through all outward show and fashion,  
 Justice the Avenger ‡ rise.

12. All the pomp of earth had vanished,  
 Falsehood and deceit were banished,  
 Reason spake more loud than passion,  
 And the truth wore no disguise.

13. Every vassal of his banner,  
 Every serf born to his manor,  
 All those wronged and wretched creatures,  
 By his hand were freed again.

14. And, as on the sacred missal  
 He recorded their dismissal,  
 Death relaxed his iron features,  
 And the monk replied, " Amen ! "

\* "Have mercy, O Lord."

† Grief of heart for sin.

‡ One who returns punishment for injury.

15. Many centuries have been numbered  
 Since in death the baron slumbered  
 By the convent's sculptured portals,  
 Mingling with the common dust ;

16. But the good deed, through the ages  
 Living in historic pages,  
 Brighter grows and gleams immortal,  
 Unconsumed by moth or rust.

H. W. LONGFELLOW.



#### 4. HENRY THE FIFTH'S SPEECH BEFORE AGINCOURT.

[*Henry the Fifth (1413-1422), the most popular king who ever ruled in England, revived Edward the Third's claim to the French crown, and crossed over to France with an army to support his claim. The first event of the war was the successful siege of Harfleur, at the mouth of the Seine (September 1415). From Harfleur Henry marched northward, and after seven days' waiting gave battle to the French with an army of less than 15,000 men to their 50,000. Crécy was close by, and in its turn the village of Agincourt gave its name to a great English victory (October 1415). More than 10,000 French were slain. As at Crécy and Poictiers, the victory was due in great measure to the English archers.*]

*Westmoreland.*                    Oh that we now had here  
 But one ten thousand of those men in England  
 That do no work to-day !

*King Henry.*                    What's he that wishes so ?  
 My cousin Westmoreland ?—No, my fair cousin :  
 If we are marked to die, we are enow  
 To do our country loss ; and if to live,  
 The fewer men the greater share of honour.  
 God's will ! I pray thee, wish not one man more :

By Jove, I am not covetous for gold,  
 Nor care I who doth feed upon my cost ;  
 It yearns me not if men my garments wear ;  
 Such outward things dwell not in my desires :  
 But if it be a sin to covet honour,  
 I am the most offending soul alive.

No, faith, my coz,\* wish not a man from England :  
 God's peace ! I would not lose so great an honour,  
 As one man more, methinks, would share from me,  
 For the best hope I have. Oh, do not wish one more !  
 Rather proclaim it, Westmoreland, through my host,  
 That he which hath no stomach to this fight,  
 Let him depart ; his passport shall be made,  
 And crowns for convoy † put into his purse :  
 We would not die in that man's company  
 That fears his fellowship to die with us.  
 This day is called the feast of Crispian :  
 He that outlives this day, and comes safe home,  
 Will stand a tip-toe when this day is named,  
 And rouse him at the name of Crispian.  
 He that outlives this day, and sees old age,  
 Will yearly on the vigil feast his neighbours,  
 And say, " To-morrow is St. Crispian ; "  
 Then will he strip his sleeve and show his scars,  
 And say, " These wounds I had on Crispin's day."  
 Old men forget ; yet all shall be forgot,  
 But he'll remember with advantages  
 What feats he did that day. Then shall our names,  
 Familiar in his mouth as household words—

\* Familiar contraction of *cousin*. † Guard against the difficulties and dangers of the way.

Harry the King, Bedford and Exeter,  
 Warwick and Talbot, Salisbury and Gloster—  
 Be in their flowing cups freshly remembered.  
 This story shall the good man teach his son ;  
 And Crispin Crispian \* shall ne'er go by,  
 From this day to the ending of the world,  
 But we in it shall be remembered—  
 We few, we happy few, we band of brothers ;  
 For he to-day that sheds his blood with me  
 Shall be my brother ; be he ne'er so vile,  
 This day shall gentle his condition ; †  
 And gentlemen in England, now abed,  
 Shall think themselves accursed they were not here ;  
 And hold their manhoods cheap, while any speaks  
 That fought with us upon St. Crispin's day.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (*Henry V.*, Act iv. Sc. 3).

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## 5. THE ARMADA.‡

[*The following verses of Lord Macaulay describe the manner in which the signal war-flame announcing the coming of the Armada sped over the land from “Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay.”*]

Attend, all ye who list to hear our noble England's praise ;  
 I tell of the thrice-famous deeds she wrought in ancient  
 days,

When the great fleet invincible against her bore in vain  
 The richest spoils of Mexico, the stoutest hearts of Spain.

\* Crispinus and Crispianus were brothers, martyred 287 A.D. They became the patron saints of shoemakers.

† Make himself a gentleman in rank.

‡ A map of England should be consulted in reading this poem.

It was about the lovely close of a warm summer's day,  
There came a gallant merchant-ship full sail to Plymouth  
Bay ;

Her crew hath seen Castile's black fleet beyond Aurigny's  
isle,

At earliest twilight, on the waves lie heaving many a mile.  
At sunrise she escaped their van, by God's especial grace ;  
And the tall *Pinta*, till the noon, had held her close in  
chase.

Forthwith a guard at every gun was placed along the wall ;  
The beacon blazed upon the roof of Edgecumbe's lofty hall ;  
Many a light fishing-bark put out to pry along the coast,  
And with loose rein and bloody spur rode inland many a  
post.

With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff comes ;  
Behind him march the halberdiers, before him sound the  
drums ;

His yeomen round the market cross make clear an ample  
space,

For there behoves him to set up the standard of Her Grace.  
And haughtily the trumpets peal, and gaily dance the bells,  
As slow upon the labouring wind the royal blazon swells.  
Look how the Lion of the sea lifts up his ancient crown,  
And underneath his deadly paw treads the gay lilies down.  
So stalked he when he turned to flight, on that famed Picard  
field,

Bohemia's plume, and Genoa's bow, and Cæsar's eagle shield ;  
So glared he when at Agincourt in wrath he turned to bay,  
And crushed and torn beneath his claws the princely hunters  
lay.

Ho! strike the flagstaff deep, Sir Knight; ho! scatter flowers, fair maids;

Ho! gunners, fire a loud salute; ho! gallants, draw your blades:

Thou sun, shine on her joyously; ye breezes, waft her wide—  
Our glorious *SEMPER EADEM*, the banner of our pride.

The freshening breeze of eve unfurled that banner's massy fold,

The parting gleam of sunshine kissed that haughty scroll of gold;

Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple sea—  
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again shall be.  
From Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay,

That time of slumber was as bright and busy as the day;  
For swift to east and swift to west the ghastly war-flame spread;

High on St. Michael's Mount it shone—it shone on Beachy Head.

Far on the deep the Spaniard saw, along each southern shire,  
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling points of fire.

The fisher left his skiff to rock on Tamar's glittering waves,  
The rugged miners poured to war from Mendip's sunless caves.

O'er Longleat's towers, o'er Cranbourne's oaks, the fiery herald flew;

He roused the shepherds of Stonehenge, the rangers of Beaulieu.

Right sharp and quick the bells all night rang out from  
Bristol town,

And ere the day three hundred horse had met on Clifton  
down.

The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night,  
And saw o'erhanging Richmond Hill the streak of blood-red  
light;

Then bugle's note and cannon's roar the deathlike silence  
broke,

And with one start and with one cry the royal city woke.

At once on all her stately gates arose the answering fires;  
At once the wild alarm clashed from all her reeling spires;  
From all the batteries of the Tower pealed loud the voice  
of fear,

And all the thousand masts of Thames sent back a louder  
cheer;

And from the farthest wards was heard the rush of hurrying  
feet,

And the broad streams of pikes and flags rushed down each  
roaring street.

And broader still became the blaze, and louder still the din,  
As fast from every village round the horse came spurring in;  
And eastward straight from wild Blackheath the warlike  
errand went,

And roused in many an ancient hall the gallant squires of  
Kent.

Southward from Surrey's pleasant hills flew those bright  
couriers forth;

High on bleak Hampstead's swarthy moor they started for  
the North;

And on, and on, without a pause, untired they bounded  
still ;  
All night from tower to tower they sprang—they sprang  
from hill to hill,  
Till the proud Peak unfurled the flag o'er Darwin's rocky  
dales,  
Till like volcanoes flared to heaven the stormy hills of Wales,  
Till twelve fair counties saw the blaze on Malvern's lonely  
height,  
Till streamed in crimson on the wind the Wrekin's crest  
of light,  
Till broad and fierce the star came forth on Ely's stately fane,  
And tower and hamlet rose in arms o'er all the boundless  
plain ;  
Till Belvoir's lordly terraces the sign to Lincoln sent,  
And Lincoln sped the message on o'er the wide vale of Trent;  
Till Skiddaw saw the fire that burned on Gaunt's embattled  
pile,  
And the red glare on Skiddaw roused the burghers of Carlisle.

LORD MACAULAY.

## SUMMARY OF BRITISH HISTORY, WITH DATES.

B.C.

55. In 55 B.C. the Celts of the British Isles consisted of two great nations—the **Cymry**, in the southern part of Britain, and the **Gaels**, in the Highlands of Scotland and in Ireland.

55. **Julius Cæsar** invaded Britain to punish the Britons for helping their kinsmen in Gaul to oppose the Roman armies.

54. Next year Cæsar returned to Britain with a much larger army. He defeated the Britons under **Cassivelaunus**, and captured Verulam (St. Albans). Having received hostages and promises of tribute, he returned to Gaul.

A.D.

No Roman soldier set foot in Britain for nearly a century.

43. The Romans, under the **Emperor Claudius**, began the real conquest of Britain. (Lesson 2, page 12.)

50. **Caractacus**, the British leader, was defeated, and carried a prisoner to Rome. The south-east of Britain was made a Roman province.

61. The **Druuids** continually stirred up the people to revolt. The Roman general, Suetonius Paulinus, crossed the Menai Strait to **Mona**, killed all the Druuids found there, and destroyed the altars and sacred groves. During his absence the Iceni revolted under Boadicea, their queen. Suetonius hastened back, and defeated the British with great slaughter. Boadicea poisoned herself.

78. **Julius Agricola** became governor (Lesson 2, page 12), and gradually reduced the whole of Southern Britain. He marched into Scotland, then called Caledonia, and defeated the wild tribes who lived in that country.

81. Agricola built a **chain of forts** between the Forth and the Clyde to shut out the northern tribes.

84. Penetrating the Highlands for the last time, he **defeated the Caledonians**, under Galgacus, in Perthshire. Britain south of the Tyne became Roman.

121. The **Emperor Hadrian** visited Britain, and built a **stone wall** between the Tyne and the Solway. (Lesson 2, pages 13-15.)

139. **Antoninus Pius** built an **earthen wall** between the Forth and the Clyde.

**A.D. 211.** The **Emperor Severus** overcame the Caledonians, strengthened Agricola's wall, and died at York.

During the next two hundred years the Romans remained masters of South Britain.

**286.** The **Saxons** began to make inroads on the south-east coast; hence called by the Romans "the Saxon Shore."

**306.** Caledonia invaded by bands of rovers from Ireland. These newcomers were known as **Scots**. (Lesson 22, page 112.)

**360.** The inroads of the **Scots** and **Picts** began.

**410.** Rome was captured by the Goths, and the **Roman emperor ceased to rule** in Britain.

After the departure of the Romans, Britain was left unprotected, and was **constantly attacked** by the Picts and Scots, and later on by the English pirates (Jutes, Saxons, and Angles).

**449.** The Jute chiefs, **Hengist** and **Horsa**, landed on the Isle of Thanet, and conquered Kent. (Lesson 4, pages 22-24.)

**477.** The **Saxons** (Lesson 5, page 29) subdued what is now **Sussex**, and later on founded **Wessex**. They gave their name to Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, and Wessex.

**495-** The **Angles** (Lesson 6, page 30) conquered the district between the Forth and Thames, and gave their name to the whole country —Angle-land (England), the land of the English.

**547.** The English victorious at **Deorham**, in Gloucestershire.

**597.** Pope Gregory sent Augustine and a band of missionaries to convert the English to **Christianity**. (Lesson 7, page 36.)

**Ethelbert**, King of Kent, was converted, and Augustine became first Archbishop of Canterbury. Gradually the rest of England became Christian. In 563 **Columba** had founded a monastery on Iona. (Lesson 22, page 112.)

In Whitby Abbey the **first great English song** was composed. The composer was **Cædmon**.

**613.** The Welsh defeated at **Chester**, and Strathclyde cut off from Wales. (Lesson 20, page 104.)

**626.** **Edwin**, King of Northumbria, became overlord of England.

**670.** Edinburgh was founded by Edwin of Northumbria, and became the capital of the Northumbrian kingdom. (Lesson 22, page 113.)

**784.** **Offa** of Mercia subdued Northumbria and Wessex, and became very powerful. (Lesson 6, page 33.)

**802.** **Egbert**, King of Wessex, defeated the Mercians, and became overlord of England.

The **Vikings** (Lessons 10 and 11, pages 47-54), or Northmen from

**A.D.** the coasts of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, began their raids. The Danes wintered in the **Isle of Sheppey**, and began to settle in the country.

**839.** Kenneth MacAlpin, a prince of Dalriada, united Caledonia under one sovereign. It was then named Scotland. (Lesson 23, page 114.)

**855.**

**847.** **Alfred the Great** (Lessons 8 and 9, pages 39-47), fourth son of King Ethelwulf, was born.

**858.** Death of King **Ethelwulf**. **Ethelbald** his son became king of Kent and Sussex. (Lesson 8, page 40.)

**861.** Ethelbald died. His brother **Ethelbert** became king of the reunited kingdom. (Lesson 8, page 41.)

**866.** Ethelbert reigned five years. **Ethelred**, the third son of King Ethelwulf, became king, and Alfred, his brother, now in his eighteenth year, ruled with him. (Lesson 8, page 41.)

**871.** Death of Ethelred. **Alfred the Great became king**, and opposed the Danes (Lesson 9, page 42), who gained possession of the whole of the eastern side of the **Danelaw**, the country as far south as the Thames.

**878.** Fresh swarms of **Danes** continually arrived, and London and Winchester were seized. Alfred was forced to seek refuge in the marshes of Athelney (Somersetshire). (Lesson 9, page 42.)

**879.** Alfred defeated the Danes at **Ethandun**, and peace was made with their leader, Guthrum, at Wedmore. By this treaty the Danes were to hold the lands of the East Angles and the East Saxons, and to become Christians. Alfred then began to strengthen his kingdom and improve the lot of his people.

**901.** **Alfred died** at the age of fifty-two.

**925.** **Edward the Elder** succeeded Alfred, and defeated the Danes.

**937.** King **Athelstan**, Edward's son, fought against the Vikings and the Scots, and won a victory at **Brunanburgh**.

**940.** In the reign of **Edmund**, brother of Athelstan, the whole **Danelaw** south of the Humber was **recovered** from the Danes. (Lesson 11, page 51.)

**959.** **Edgar the Peace-winner**, brother of Edwy, was the first real King of all England. (Lesson 11, page 51.)

**978.** **Ethelred the Redeless**, or Ill-counselled, was set upon the throne. The raids of the Vikings began again. (Lesson 11, page 52.) Ethelred bought a truce with the Danes, and raised money by a tax called **Danegeld**.

**1002.** On **St. Brice's Day** there was a massacre of Danes in England.

**1003.** **Sweyn**, King of Denmark, invaded England. After ten years of

**A.D.** fighting, Ethelred was forced to flee to Normandy. Sweyn became king.

**1013.** Llywelyn became chief king of Wales. (Lesson 20, page 105.)

**1010.** **Canute** or **Cnut**, Sweyn's son, succeeded his father.

**1016.** On his death one of Cnut's sons became king of Norway, and the other, named Harold, king of England. Both were dead in seven years, and then **Edward the Confessor**, son of Ethelred the Redeless, became king.

**1035.** **Godwin**, Earl of Kent, the champion of Englishmen against the foreigner, was forced to seek shelter in Flanders.

**1042.** **William, Duke of Normandy**, visited Edward in England.

**1051.** Godwin was recalled.

**1052.** **Harold** was **wrecked** on the coast of Normandy. Duke William seized him, but released him on his swearing to support William's claim to the English crown.

**1066.** On the death of Edward the Confessor, **Harold** was **elected king**. Harald Hardrada, King of Norway, and Tostig, brother of Harold, invaded Northumbria, and were defeated by Harold at **Stamford Bridge**, Yorkshire (September 25). William of Normandy landed at Pevensey in Sussex (September 28). Harold marched southward, and was defeated and slain in the **Battle of Senlac** (or Hastings), October 14.

**1067.** William threatened London, and Archbishop Stigand offered him the crown. He was **crowned at Westminster** on Christmas Day. William visited Normandy. The tyranny of his regents excited revolts of the English.

**1069.** A great rising took place in the north, but was crushed.

**1070.** Stigand was deposed, and Lanfranc summoned from Normandy to take his place.

**1071.** William forced the last stronghold of the English in the Fens of Ely, but **Hereward the Wake**, their leader, escaped. This was the last rising of the English. The Norman Conquest was now complete.

**1072.** William marched into Scotland, and received the **submission of Malcolm the Third**. (Lesson 23, page 115.)

William introduced a new system of land-holding called the **Feudal System**.

**1078.** The oldest part of the Tower of London, the **White Tower**, was built by William the Conqueror. (Lesson 14, page 69.)

**1081.** William invaded Wales, seized Cardiff, and built its castle.

**1085-** The **Doomsday Book** (Lesson 13, pages 61-66) was compiled by William's order.

**1087.**

**A.D.**      **William died** from the effects of an accident, at Mantes, in France.

**1087.**      The Norman barons plotted to place Robert (the Conqueror's eldest son) on the throne. The English supported William Rufus, or the Red (the second son), who was crowned king.

**1091.**      William attempted to take Normandy from Robert. It was agreed that the survivor should hold the united dominions.

**1095.**      The **First Crusade** was preached by Peter the Hermit. In order to join it, Robert of Normandy sold his dukedom to William.

**1097.**      **William the Red** was found **dead** in the New Forest, with an arrow in his breast.

Robert being absent on the Crusade, **Henry the First** (the Scholar), the third son of the Conqueror, seized the throne. He married Edith-Matilda, daughter of Malcolm the Third of Scotland, and of Margaret, sister of Edgar the *Æ*theling.

**1106.**      Henry **invaded Normandy**, and defeated his brother Robert, who was taken prisoner. He was confined in Cardiff Castle till his death in 1135.

**1114.**      The king's daughter, Matilda or Maud, was married to the Emperor Henry the Fifth of Germany.

**1120.**      The king's only son, William, was drowned in the wreck of the **White Ship** in the English Channel.

**1124.**      David the First of Scotland began to reign. He was one of the most renowned of Scottish kings. (Lesson 23, pages 116, 117.)

**1126.**      Henry required his barons to promise to accept the Empress Matilda as his successor.

**1128.**      The Emperor, Henry the Fifth, having died, Matilda married Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, a boy of sixteen.

**1135.**      Henry the First died, leaving his daughter Matilda as his heir. Many of the English barons objected to being ruled by a woman. They preferred **Stephen** (son of the Conqueror's daughter), and he was crowned at Westminster. His election was due mainly to the promises he made to all classes—especially to the barons, whom he allowed to **build castles** (Lesson 14, page 72) on their estates.

**1136.**      The Welsh, under Griffith ap Rees, defeated the English at Cardigan. (Lesson 21, page 106.)

**1138.**      **David of Scotland**, Matilda's uncle, invaded England in support of her claim to the throne. He was defeated at **Northallerton** (Yorkshire), in the Battle of the Standard. (Lesson 23, page 116.)

**1139.**      **War** raged between Stephen's supporters and those of Matilda, who landed on the south coast with 140 knights. (Lesson 14, page 72.)

**1141.**      **Stephen** was taken **prisoner** at the Battle of Lincoln, and Matilda

**A.D.** acknowledged as queen. Her half-brother Robert was captured, and exchanged for Stephen.

**1147.** Matilda withdraws to Normandy.

**1152.** Matilda's son, **Henry, landed** in England, and claimed the throne.

**1153.** **A treaty** was made between Henry and Stephen at **Wallingford**, by which Henry was to succeed Stephen.

**1154.** Stephen died. It was in Stephen's reign that **tournaments** were first held in England.

**Henry the Second** came to the throne, and set about restoring law and order. He demolished many of the castles of the barons, and drove foreign churchmen out of the country. He marked out **six "circuits"** (Lessons 15 and 16, pages 74-83), and sent judges through them to decide disputes.

From his mother and his wife he inherited a large part of France. He was master of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and Aquitaine. (Lesson 26, page 131.)

**1162.** **Thomas Becket** was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He opposed Henry's Church reforms.

**1164.** The **Constitutions of Clarendon**, asserting the king's supremacy, were passed by a council held at Clarendon (Wilts). Becket first assented to the Constitutions, then retracted and fled to France.

**1165.** William the Lion became king of Scotland. He reigned forty-nine years. (Lesson 24, pages 117-119.)

**1170.** Becket having made peace with Henry, returned to Canterbury. He excommunicated the Archbishop of York, and was **murdered** in **Canterbury Cathedral** by some of Henry's knights.

**1172.** Henry received at Dublin the homage of several Irish chiefs, and was acknowledged **Lord of Ireland**.

**1174.** Henry's sons—Henry, Geoffrey, and Richard—rebelled against him, with the support of the King of France and of William the Lion of Scotland. The king's forces repelled all these attacks. **William the Lion** was captured at Alnwick, and forced to acknowledge the king of England as overlord. (Lesson 24, pages 118, 119.)

Henry did penance for the murder of Becket at his shrine at Canterbury.

**1189.** **Henry the Second died** at Chinon (Touraine), and was buried at Fontevraud (Anjou).

Henry the Second was the first to establish the system of settling disputes among all his subjects, by the method which grew into our **trial by jury**. (Lesson 16, pages 79-83.)

Henry the Second was succeeded by his son **Richard the First**

**A.D.** (the Lion-Heart). The Jews in London and other large towns were massacred, and their houses were burned.

**1190.** Richard joined the **Third Crusade**. For a large sum he set free the king of Scotland from the homage which Henry the Second had forced him to yield. (Lesson 24, pages 118, 119.)

**1192.** Richard took **Acre** from the Saracens. On his way home from Palestine he was wrecked in the Gulf of Venice, and fell into the hands of his enemy, the Duke of Austria, who threw him into prison. The English people paid a **heavy ransom** for his release.

**1194.** **Llywelyn the Great** began to reign. (Lesson 21, page 107.)

**1199.** Richard made war against Philip of France, and died from the wound of an arrow while besieging a castle there. He left no heir. After Richard's death his brother **John** succeeded to the throne.

**1203.** Arthur, Duke of Brittany, son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, and the true heir to the throne, was murdered at Rouen, it was said by John's hand.

**1204.** Philip of France conquered Normandy, and stripped John of all his French possessions. (Lesson 17, page 86.)

**1206.** The Pope appointed **Stephen Langton** Archbishop of Canterbury. John defied the Pope, and seized the revenues of the see.

**1208.** The Pope laid England under an **interdict**. Next year the Pope **excommunicated John**. (Lesson 17, page 87.)

**1212.** The Pope deposed John, and called on Philip of France to carry out the sentence. In the next year John became the **Pope's vassal**, and did homage for his realm. (Lesson 17, page 87.)

**1215.** The barons, headed by Archbishop Langton, demanded from the king the observance of the charter of Henry the First. On his refusal they took up arms. John met them at Runnymede, near Windsor (June 15), and signed the **Great Charter** (Magna Charta). (Lesson 17, pages 83-91.) The Pope annulled the Great Charter. John traversed the country with foreign troops, and laid it waste.

**1216.** The barons called in the aid of **Lewis**, the Dauphin of France. John retreated northward, and lost all his baggage and treasures in the sands of the Wash. He was seized with fever, reached Newark Castle, and **died**.

**Henry the Third**, son of John, was only nine years old when he was crowned. (Lesson 19, page 96.)

**1227.** Henry began to rule in his own name, and De Burgh was dismissed. (Lesson 19, page 97.)

**1236.** Henry married **Eleanor** of Provence, who brought to the court many of her French friends, and gave them lands and offices.

**A.D.** Llywelyn ap Griffith ("the last Llywelyn") now became the sole ruler of Wales.

**1255.** The barons met at Oxford, to force the king to observe Magna Charta. A council of fifteen was appointed. Simon de Montfort was leader of the barons. Henry evaded the **Provisions of Oxford**. The barons, with Earl Simon at their head, rose in arms against the king.

**1258.** The barons defeated Henry in the **Battle of Lewes** (Sussex), and took him and his son Edward prisoner. (Lesson 19, page 98.)

**1264.** Earl Simon called a **Parliament** (Lesson 19, pages 98-100), to which, besides barons, prelates, and knights of the shire, he summoned representatives from **cities and boroughs**. This was the beginning of Parliament in its modern form.

**1265.** Prince Edward, having escaped, defeated Earl Simon at **Evesham** (Worcestershire). Earl Simon was killed, and King Henry was released. (Lesson 19, page 100.)

**1272.** **Henry the Third died.** **Edward the First**, his son, came to the throne.

**1274.** Llywelyn refused to do homage. (Lesson 21, page 108.)

**1282.** **Llywelyn**, Prince of Wales, was slain, and Wales was subdued. Six months later his brother David was captured and executed. (Lesson 21, page 108.)

**1284.** Prince Edward was born at Carnarvon, and was the first English **Prince of Wales**. **Statute of Wales** passed at Rhuddlan. (Lesson 21, page 108.)

**1286.** Alexander the Third of Scotland was accidentally killed, and his infant grand-daughter, the Maid of Norway, became heiress to the crown. (Lesson 24, page 119.)

**1290.** The Maid of Norway died. Scotland was ruled by regents for four years. (Lesson 24, page 119.)

**1291.** Edward the First of England agreed to decide between the candidates for the Scottish crown, if his overlordship was acknowledged. He chose **John Baliol** as king. (Lesson 24, page 120.)

**1296.** Edward, provoked by Baliol's defiance of him, ravaged Scotland, deposed Baliol, and made the Earl of Surrey guardian or governor of the country. (Lesson 24, page 120.)

**1297.** The Scots rose under **William Wallace**, who defeated the English forces at Stirling. (Lesson 24, page 122.)

**1298.** At **Falkirk**, Wallace was overthrown by Edward. (Lesson 24, page 122.)

**1305.** **Stirling Castle surrendered** to Edward, who thought that Scotland was now quite subdued.

**A.D.** The Scots again revolted under **Robert Bruce**, who was crowned at Scone. (Lesson 24, page 122.)

**1306.** Bruce defeated Pembroke at **Loudon Hill** (Ayrshire), and his revolt made rapid progress.

Edward marched against Bruce, reached Cumberland, and **died** at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle. His son, **Edward the Second**, succeeded to the throne. (Lesson 24, page 123.)

**1314.** Bruce defeated the English at **Bannockburn**, and made Scotland free. (Lesson 24, page 123.)

**1327.** Parliament (at Westminster) **deposed Edward the Second**, and proclaimed his son king, as Edward the Third.

Nothing is really known of the death of Edward the Second, but he is believed to have been murdered with great cruelty in Berkeley Castle (Gloucestershire), in September 1327.

**1328.** By the Treaty of Northampton the **independence of Scotland** was confirmed.

**1337.** Edward **claimed the crown of France** in right of his mother Isabella. (Lesson 26, page 130.)

**1340.** The **French fleet was destroyed** off Sluys. (Lesson 26, page 132.)

**1346.** Edward **invaded France**, landing at La Hogue. He gained a great victory at **Crécy**, and laid siege to Calais. (Lesson 25, page 127.)

**1347.** Calais surrendered to Edward after a year's siege. (Lesson 27, page 133.)

**1349.** The **Black Death** carried off nearly one-third of the English people. (Lesson 28, page 139.)

**1356.** The **Black Prince**, eldest son of Edward the Third, won a great victory over the French at **Poictiers**. (Lesson 27, page 133.)

**1360.** The **Treaty of Bretigny** was concluded between England and France. (Lesson 27, page 134.)

**1376.** The **Black Prince died**.

**1377.** **Edward the Third died**, and was succeeded by **Richard the Second**, son of Edward, the Black Prince.

**1381.** “**Hurling Time.**” The peasants of England revolted. Wat Tiler, the Kentish leader, was slain. The revolt, in which many thousands perished, seemed to have failed, but actually it meant the end of serfdom. (Lesson 28, pages 138-142.)

**1397.** Richard the Second banished Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, and son of John of Gaunt.

**1399.** During Richard's absence in Ireland, Hereford returned to claim the estates of his father, who had died. His friends flocked to his standard. **Richard was deposed**, and Hereford was proclaimed as

**A.D.** **Henry the Fourth.** He was the grandson of Edward the Third.

**1400.** Richard, the deposed king, died in Pontefract Castle.

**1413.** Henry the Fourth died, and was succeeded by his son, **Henry the Fifth**, who resumed the war with France. (Lesson 27, page 135.)

**1415.** Henry claimed the provinces assigned to the king of England by the Treaty of Bretigny (1360), invaded France, took Harfleur, and defeated the French at **Agincourt**. (Lesson 27, page 135.)

**1417.** Normandy was conquered, and Henry became master of the greater part of France.

**1420.** By the **Treaty of Troyes** it was arranged that Henry should be king of France after the death of Charles the Sixth, and regent until that time. (Lesson 27, page 136.)

**1422.** **Henry died**, and as his son was a baby a Council of Regency was appointed, with the Duke of Gloucester as Protector. The Duke of Bedford was regent of France. **Caxton** born.

**1429.** The siege of Orleans was raised by **Joan of Arc**, and Charles the Seventh was crowned at Rheims. (Lesson 27, page 137.)

**1435.** **Bedford died**, and the English power in France slowly passed away. (Lesson 27, page 137.)

**1445.** Henry married Margaret of Anjou. (Lesson 30, page 148.)

**1450.** The men of Kent rose in revolt under **Jack Cade**. (Lesson 30, page 148.)

**1451.** The French recovered all the English territories in France except the town of Calais. (Lesson 30, page 148.)

**1453.** The king was seized with a fit of insanity, and **Richard, Duke of York**, was made Protector. (Lesson 30, page 149.)

**1455.** Henry recovered. York was dismissed, and Somerset restored to power. York appealed to arms, and the **Wars of the Roses** began. The Yorkists won a victory at **St. Albans**. (Lesson 30, page 149.)

**1461.** The Yorkists were victorious too at **Northampton**, and York was declared Henry's heir. (Lesson 30, page 151.)

York was defeated and slain at **Wakefield**. (Lesson 30, page 151.) His son Edward was declared king as **Edward the Fourth**.

**1470.** The **Earl of Warwick** (the "King-Maker"), who had been chiefly instrumental in making Edward the Fourth king, and with whom he had quarrelled, now joined Margaret, and **restored Henry** to the throne. Edward fled abroad for safety. (Lesson 30, pages 150, 152.)

**1471.** Edward returned; he defeated and slew Warwick at **Barnet**. A fortnight later he defeated Margaret and killed her son at **Tewkesbury**. (Lesson 30, page 152.)

**A.D.**

**1476.** The **first book was printed** in England by Caxton.

**1483.** Edward the Fourth died, and was succeeded by his son Edward the Fifth. **Richard, Duke of Gloucester**, was proclaimed Protector. Edward and his brother were murdered in the Tower, and Gloucester declared himself **king**. (Lesson 30, page 152.)

**1485.** Henry of Richmond defeated and slew Richard the Third at **Bosworth Field**.

**1486.** Henry **elected** king by Parliament. (Lesson 31, page 154.)

**1487.** Henry married **Elizabeth of York**, daughter of Edward the Fourth, and the claims of the rival houses were blended. (Lesson 31, page 155.)

**1486-** **1487.** **Lambert Simnel** personated the young Earl of Warwick. He was crowned in Dublin, and defeated at **Stoke**, near Newark. (Lesson 31, page 155.)

**1487.** **Star Chamber** established. (Lesson 32, page 158.)

**1492-** **1494.** **Perkin Warbeck** personated Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the princes murdered in the Tower. He invaded Cornwall in 1497, and was executed in 1499. (Lesson 31, page 156.)

**1492.** **Columbus** discovered **America**. (Lesson 33, pages 162, 163.)

**1494.** **Poynings' Acts** passed.

**1497.** The **Cabots** discovered **Labrador**. (Lesson 33, page 164.)

**1501.** Marriage of **Prince Arthur** with **Catherine of Aragon**. (Lesson 34, page 171.)

**1509.** **Death of Henry the Seventh.** Accession of **Henry the Eighth**.

**1513.** **Battle of Spurs.**  
Battle of Flodden.

**1519.** **Charles the Fifth** became **Emperor**.

**1520.** **Field of the Cloth of Gold.**  
**Luther** at Wittenberg. (Lesson 34, page 168.)

**1523.** Parliament called; which granted only half the king's demands.

**1525.** Battle of **Pavia** and capture of Francis the First.

**1527.** Henry took steps to be **divorced**. (Lesson 34, page 171.)

**1530.** Wolsey's **Fall and Death**. (Lesson 34, page 172.)

**1531.** Clergy fined for recognizing Wolsey as legate. (Lesson 35, page 174.)

**1533.** **Cranmer** archbishop. (Lesson 35, page 174.) Henry married **Anne Boleyn**. **Thomas Cromwell** the king's adviser. (Lesson 35, page 175.)

**1534.** **Henry declared Head of the Church**. (Lesson 35, page 176.)

**1536.** Suppression of the **smaller monasteries**. (Lesson 35, page 176.)

Aske's rebellion ("The Pilgrimage of Grace"). (Lesson 36, page 177.)

**A.D.** Suppression of **greater monasteries**. (Lesson 36, page 178.)

**1538-40.** The **Bible** translated by royal order, and a chained copy put in every parish church. (Lesson 36, page 179.)

**1540.** Thomas Cromwell accused of treason and executed. (Lesson 36, page 181.) **Birth of Francis Drake.** (Lesson 41, page 214.)

**1547.** Henry died, and was succeeded by his son **Edward the Sixth**. (Lesson 37, page 183.) The Duke of Somerset became Protector. (Lesson 37, page 185.) **Battle of Pinkie.** (Lesson 37, page 186.)

**1548.** The **first Prayer Book** of Edward the Sixth approved, and an Act of Uniformity passed. (Lesson 37, page 185.) Three years later a second Prayer Book was approved, and a second Act of Uniformity was passed.

**1549.** **Ket's rebellion.** (Lesson 37, page 186.) **Fall of Somerset.** (Lesson 37, page 189.)

**1553.** Edward the Sixth died, and **Mary**, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, came to the throne. (Lesson 37, page 190.)

**1554.** **Wyatt's rebellion**, and execution of **Lady Jane Grey**. (Lesson 38, page 192.)

Mary married her cousin, **Philip of Spain**. (Lesson 38, page 192.)

**1555.** The **persecution** of the Protestants began. Bishop Hooper was burned at Gloucester, Ridley and Latimer at Oxford. (Lesson 38, page 194.)

**1556.** Cranmer burned. (Lesson 38, page 194.)

**1557.** **Covenant** signed in Scotland. (Lesson 40, page 206.)

**1558.** England joined Spain in a war against France, and in the course of it **Calais** was lost. Mary died, and was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth. (Lesson 38, page 197.)

**1564.** Birth of **Shakespeare**.

**1565.** Mary Queen of Scots **married** her cousin **Henry Darnley**. (Lesson 40, page 207.)

**1566.** Murder of **Rizzio**. (Lesson 40, page 208.)

**1568.** **Mary in England.** (Lesson 40, page 210.)

**1569.** **Rising of Roman Catholics** in the north. (Lesson 40, page 210.)

**1572.** **St. Bartholomew's Day.** (Lesson 40, page 211.)

**1577-80.** Drake **circumnavigated** the world. (Lesson 42, page 217.)

**1588.** **Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.** (Lesson 40, page 212.)

**1595.** The **Spanish Armada**. (Lesson 43, page 220.)

**1603.** Death of Drake. (Lesson 43, page 224.)

Death of **Elizabeth** and **accession** of James the First.



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